

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME LII * OCTOBER 1944 * NUMBER 8

Educational News and Editorial Comment

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DOES THIS NATION WANT COM- PULSORY MILITARY TRAINING IN PEACETIME?

ONE of the important problems facing the American people in the months that lie immediately ahead will be to decide whether a period of uninterrupted military training shall be mandatory for young men in peacetime. The immediate effect on, and the far-reaching implications for, the period of secondary and college education make this probably the most important issue for American education today.

Fortune Survey At this writing there is some evidence that the American people have already made up their minds. The July, 1944, issue of *Fortune* reports the results of a nation-wide survey of public opinion on this question. To the specific question: "After the war do you think the U.S. should draft all young men for a certain amount of

Army training during peacetime?" 69.1 per cent answered "Yes"; 21.1 per cent, "No"; and 9.8 per cent were undecided.

Furthermore, to the question: "If all young men in the U.S. were to be given military training, how long do you think this training should last?" 81.1 per cent of the people answering the question favored a period of one year or longer. Indeed, 34.2 per cent are ready to require more than a year.

The third question asked in the Fortune Survey is of particular interest to educators concerned with the period of general education. It asked: "If all young men in the U.S. were to be given military training, at about what age do you think this training should begin?" As many as 32.1 per cent replied that this compulsory training should be given "before eighteen years of age"; 43.8 per cent favor "at eighteen years of age"; and 17.5 per cent prefer to have the training come after eighteen.

Clearly, if the Fortune Survey accurately reflects public opinion, the American people today favor one or more years of compulsory military training for all young men at about the age of eighteen. Furthermore, several bills are now before Congress proposing to make mandatory one uninterrupted year of military training for young men of eighteen. What the final decision will be, after the pros and cons of the various proposals and the basic issue itself have been vigorously debated in the public forum, it is difficult to predict.

One need not contemplate the proposals for compulsory military training long to realize that here is an issue which will challenge American educational statesmanship. The American people expect and deserve leadership from educators in thinking through the far-reaching implications of such a historic change in military policy. That the military defense and security of our nation requires and deserves first consideration educators should freely grant. They will differ, and rightly so, on the means and magnitude of that defense. In the debate on the question, however, it is incumbent upon educational leadership to insist that the issues be kept clear. Educators must examine carefully and present to the American people clearly a host of factors related to, and integral bound up with, the issue of compulsory military training. The issue of national military security must not be clouded by proposals for compulsory youth service to the nation, in the pattern of a modified Civilian Conserva-

tion Corps. Neither must the issue of national military security and of proposals for a national work program be confused. National programs for reducing the shock of possible large-scale peacetime unemployment must not be introduced under the guise of military security. To what extent, too, will a year or more of compulsory military training, with possibly a portion of that year devoted to some sort of educational program, intrust to the federal government, and to the armed forces, a considerable segment not only of the period of general education of American youth but of the content of that education as well? These and many other related questions may easily cloud the central issue of military security and serve to confuse the public mind. This is an appeal to American education to keep the issues clear. In all probability those who responded to the Fortune Survey had in mind only military security.

The question of obligatory military training, of course, raises a number of questions of vital importance, particularly to educators at the senior high school and junior-college level. What would be the effect on the curriculum in the Senior year of high school and the Freshman year of college were most young men of eighteen required to devote a year to military training? What new problems of articulation between the educational units would arise? Would the period of general education be interrupted seriously by a break in the educational career at this age? Would a year of military service tend to decrease or to

increase college attendance on the part of young men after military training? What effect on the last year of high school and the early years of college would result from removing from these years in school young men of eighteen but not young women? What would be the larger social consequences of such a separation? These are illustrations of the immediate and practical questions which educators will face if military training in peacetime becomes compulsory. The many ramifications and far-reaching implications of this issue call for clear thinking and courageous action. It is no question for hasty decision.

History of conscription School people will be gratified to learn that the American Council on Education is undertaking a serious study of this question. George F. Zook, president of the Council, has announced that George Fort Milton, editor, historian, and economist, is now engaged in a comprehensive study of the historical background of compulsory military service. Mr. Milton is analyzing the conscription experiences of France, Germany, Russia, Switzerland, Sweden, and Japan. The study will consider particularly the social impacts on government and education at all levels. It is hoped that a report on the history of conscription throughout the world will provide one sound basis for evaluating the present proposals. The report is to be published by the American Council on Education in December of this year.

EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

WITH each passing month there appears to be a growing conviction that a durable world peace must be based less on formal covenants among nations and more on mutual understandings among the peoples of these nations themselves. Too, there is a growing realization that to the schools will be intrusted a major responsibility for creating international understanding. In an address before the twenty-fourth Representative Assembly of the National Education Association in Pittsburgh on July 6, United States Commissioner of Education Studebaker, according to a report in *Education for Victory*, stated:

When we turn to a consideration of the long-term responsibility of schools and colleges for the education of oncoming generations of children and youth in the international affairs, the focus changes from the machinery of international collaboration to the development of those underlying attitudes and solid understandings which will make the machinery work effectively. Youth education for international understanding must perform deal with a wide variety of facts and their implications.

This subject matter seems to me to fall under four broad headings. First, there is history with its account of the experiences of the race in the long struggle for freedom and self-government.

A second major field of subject matter deals with contemporary problems. Here the student must come to understand the forces—economic, political, social, scientific, and ideological—which help to mold the pattern of events in our time. I might add parenthetically that the schools have more often failed to make students aware of these forces of

contemporary life than they have to acquaint them with historical facts.

A third subject-matter heading is political economy. Through education our young people should become well informed concerning the instruments which men have devised, their political forms and their social and economic systems, for protecting the rights of the individual and for increasing his freedom through self-government.

And, finally, there is knowledge concerning the different resources, customs, peculiarities, and cultures of other peoples, the possession of which will help to temper our judgments and to broaden our sympathies toward our associates in the enterprise of world peace and good will. It is with educational activities in this last category that "education for international understanding" has been commonly concerned.

And yet I submit that all four of the categories I have mentioned constitute the necessary subject matter of education for international understanding. With appropriate adaptations for the maturity of the student these various bases for an intelligent understanding of the world should be taught in elementary schools, in the high schools and colleges; sometimes in courses in English and in history or in other social studies, and sometimes as separate "courses."

The particular organization of the subject matter for teaching purposes, whether in terms of history or geography or political economy or cultural areas or some other principle of organization, is relatively unimportant so long as all American boys and girls now and in the years ahead become informed concerning the facts and see their implications for international understanding, peace, and good will.

An international office for education One of the concrete proposals for implementing international understanding through education is the creation of an international office for education. Impetus to this movement is given

chiefly through the American Association for an International Office for Education, an association of leading educators, churchmen, industrialists, labor leaders, and other outstanding citizens. The purpose, plan, and scope of the proposed office are set forth in the first issue of the *I.O.E. News*, a bulletin issued by the Association to report periodically "the progress made in the enlistment of all elements of the American people" in support of the enterprise:

An international organization for education with a permanent secretariat—an international education office—can be an instrument to create healthier relationships between people and through them between nations. It can materially contribute to the peace of the world by helping to improve educational standards, to clarify educational aims, and to foster intercultural fellowship and understanding. . . .

It will take a world-wide effort to bring about world-wide education and a wide view of the world. That is another reason why we need an international education office. . . .

- (1) It can prepare and recommend minimum standards at all educational levels.
- (2) It can on request give expert advice to schools and school systems in all parts of the world.
- (3) It can recommend and supervise the distribution of funds to repair devastated school systems and universities and stimulate new ones if the United Nations determine upon a policy of relief and rehabilitation of schools.
- (4) It can assume leadership in assisting the nations to meet through adult education the problems of adjusting demobilized armed forces and the people in war industries and in the resettlement of refugees.
- (5) It can provide a center for the exchange of experiences and techniques in the field of education and cultural relations.
- (6) It can facilitate the international exchange of students, professors, scientists, and artists.
- (7) It can set up schools for ad-

ministrators and teachers, to train personnel for those countries which after the war will be inadequately staffed and which will not at first be able to set up their own schools for administrators and teachers or have the background for such an enterprise. (8) It can create commissions to prepare curriculum materials to bring about better international attitudes and understanding and commissions such as that established by the Scandinavian nations to bring about the elimination from textbooks of matter causing international ill will or misconceptions by one people of another.

Educators who are interested in this movement may write the Association at 135 West Forty-fourth Street, New York 18, New York.

The International Education Assembly The thesis of the second meeting of the International Education Assembly, which met at Hood College, Frederick, Maryland, on June 5-9, was that "only educated men can be free." In harmony with the proponents of the creation of an international office of education, the delegates to this Assembly agreed that, "if freedom is to be had throughout the world, steps must be taken now to insure adequate opportunity for education of all peoples of the world." Attended by unofficial delegates from thirty-two nations and a United States delegation representing thirty educational organizations and government bureaus, the Assembly first undertook the study and adoption of a report entitled "Education for a Free Society," which is to be printed and made available for general distribution soon. The report contains a consensus of con-

victions of the Assembly relative to the "principal characteristics of an educational system that will promote the general welfare throughout the world." According to a report of the meeting contained in the *School Executive* for July, 1944, the nine principles adopted by the Assembly and fully explained in the forthcoming report are as follows:

1. The proper aim of education is the development of a free man.
2. Everyone should be educated.
3. Opportunities for advanced education should be numerous and justly distributed.
4. Learning is a lifelong obligation.
5. There should be complete freedom to learn.
6. Education should enrich human personality.
7. Education should develop economic competence.
8. Education is concerned with the development of character.
9. Education should develop international understanding.

At the final session new officers for the year were elected. Dr. W. G. Carr (U.S.A.) was elected president; Dr. Aasa Gruda Skard (Norway), vice-president; and Dr. Edgar J. Fisher (U.S.A.), secretary. The Assembly is an unofficial body, but its membership represents more than thirty nations. The program that it is proposing merits the attention of American education.

Allies confer on education Another meeting of educational leaders interested in promoting universal education and in consolidating the forces of education for world peace and a world society of

free men met in London in April as a Conference of Allied Ministers of Education. Our State Department sent a delegation to the London meeting to confer with educational leaders from other countries. Congressman J. William Fulbright, of Arkansas, served as chairman of the American delegation, which included John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education; Archibald MacLeish, librarian of Congress; Dean C. Mildred Thompson, of Vassar College; and Grayson N. Kefauver and Ralph E. Turner, of the State Department staff. One of the first tasks undertaken by the conference was the drafting of a constitution for a United Nations Office for Educational and Cultural Reconstruction. Congressman Fulbright was made chairman of the special committee to undertake the preparation of the tentative draft. After the proposed constitution has been studied by our State Department, it will be submitted to the various governments. It is proposed that after twenty of the United Nations have adopted the constitution, steps will be taken to put the program into action.

Conference of Mexican educators In this discussion of international conferences on education should be included the Conference on Mexico's Role in International Intellectual Co-operation held early this year at the University of New Mexico. The conference, sponsored by the Institute of Latin-American Studies of the University of Texas and the

School of Inter-American Affairs of the University of New Mexico, brought to this country five distinguished Mexican scholars, who delivered addresses and received honorary degrees at the regular commencement exercises. The scholars from Mexico were the only speakers at the conference, but in attendance were representatives from colleges and universities from all parts of the United States. The purpose of the conference may be gained from the following excerpt from the principal address at the final session, delivered by Dr. Rodulfo Brito Foucher, rector of the National Autonomous University of Mexico:

International intellectual co-operation aims to accelerate the development of human culture through the organized contribution of all nations, to extend the benefits of instruction to all peoples of the earth, and to place culture at the service of the masses of the world in order to create a fair and just political and social order in the commonwealth of nations and within every particular state.

The May, 1944, issue of the *Bulletin of the Pan American Union*, in which the report of this conference is found, states that plans are under way to publish the proceedings.

Readers who are interested in learning more about activities undertaken by the Department of State in this area should turn to a recent (1944) report entitled *The Cultural-Cooperation Program, 1938-1943*, which has been prepared by Haldore Hanson. It may be secured for fifteen cents from the Superintendent of

Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

It is clear from the illustrations given above that many efforts will be made to give education an opportunity to make a contribution to world peace and international good will. Educators will applaud these efforts. However, one serious problem faces us in this area, as it does in so many. That is the problem of duplication and overlapping of functions and possible hopeless confusion unless steps are taken to correlate the several movements and enterprises already under way. Unless we do unify the movements, we shall suffer much the same confusion and ineffectiveness that characterized educational leadership, or lack of it, in this country in the first years of the war. The United States Office of Education, the Department of State, the National Education Association, the American Council on Education, and other agencies and organizations must pool their efforts and activities if we are to deal effectively with other nations throughout the world.

A United Nations flag School people realize, of course, that international conferences on intellectual co-operation and global organizations to promote free men through universal education will not guarantee world peace any more than leagues and covenants per se will prevent world conflict. Steps must be taken to reach the child in the schools with curriculum materials and learning experiences that will de-

velop the understandings, the ideals, and the patterns of behavior upon which peaceful living is founded. Many schools have undertaken concrete curriculum projects, which have been described in these columns from time to time. One of the more recent projects to come to this writer's attention is reported in the May, 1944, issue of the *Bulletin of the California State Department of Education* and is described as "A Study in World Friendship: Designing a Symbol for the United Nations." The aim of the project is clearly stated in these excerpts from the pamphlet:

Since the United Nations are fighting a war to preserve the values held necessary to a democratic way of life and for a world released from the recurrent curse of war, education should put forth every effort to cement the unity now represented by the United Nations. To cultivate an emotional attitude and the determination to act in a fraternity of purpose, it was suggested that the school children of the United Nations undertake to design a symbol emblematic of the ties of freedom and justice which bind these thirty-two nations. Through the thinking of inspired youth the course of history may be constructively directed. . . .

The purpose of this publication is to give direction to elementary-school, junior high school, and senior high school teachers in developing an appropriate study of world peace and unity. It is planned that major emphasis be given to this study as the preliminary to designing an emblem symbolic of the values to be attained through international co-operation and good will. The study necessitates a knowledge and understanding of the habits, customs, religion, literature, history, and arts of other peoples as they struggle to solve their social, political and economic problems. It should emphasize that when people become acquainted with,

understand, and appreciate each other, intolerance, prejudice, and fear are eliminated. Only as pupils evidence tolerance, and respect for the dignity and worth of the individual are they developing good will. If the symbol which is produced is emblematic of world unity and lasting peace, it must be evolved from an understanding of the needs of mankind

Words are the tools of the mind. Symbols are the language of the emotions. Symbols know no barrier of continent or country. The world over symbols speak in terms of the emotions which are common to mankind.

Youth can express itself graphically through such a medium with vivid reality. The desires of youth may be expressed through the language of emotions in the symbolic designs they create. Some day their efforts will come to fruition in the choice of a flag, by whatever instrumentality may then seem best, which will become a spiritual symbol of unity throughout freedom-loving nations.

The plan for developing in the schools of the United Nations a flag which symbolizes unity among the peoples of the world is timely. Through such a specific proposal the schools may develop among children ideals that will be world wide in their application.

The pamphlet contains suggested activities for developing the project at all three school levels: elementary, junior high, and senior high school. It also contains a list of selected references and audio-visual aids. The *Bulletin* is published by the California State Department of Education at Sacramento.

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION AT HOME

CLOSELY related to the problem of education for international understanding, and indeed in the long run an integral part of it, is the need

for intercultural education at home. The same need for mutual understanding exists among the diverse cultural groups in our own country as among the nations of the world, for in a very real sense this country is a miniature world. The basic factors which lead to strife among nations operate to cause dissension and disunity and even open conflict among racial, religious, and nationality groups here. In all probability, too, the type of education which will promote international good will and understanding will serve well to unite us at home.

In a recent issue of *Intercultural Education News* announcement was made that the Bureau for Intercultural Education, of which William H. Kilpatrick is chairman, intends to expand its services in response to increased demands. Additional appointments have been made to the staff, and a new and larger office has been acquired at 119 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York 19, New York.

Probing our prejudices One of the reasons for the increase in both the staff and the physical facilities of the bureau is the expansion of its publication program. The bureau has undertaken the preparation of a series of resource units for pupils and of manuals for teachers under the series title "Problems of Race and Culture in American Education." The second resource unit in the series reached the editor's desk as these notes were being prepared. It is a small book of seventy-three pages,

bearing the title *Probing Our Prejudices: A Unit for High School Students*, which was prepared by Hortense Powdermaker, with suggestions of school activities by Helen Frances Storen. The contents of the book are presented in five chapters: "What Is Prejudice?" "Prejudice in the World Today," "How We Get Our Prejudices," "What Prejudice Does to Us," and "What We Can Do about It." Each chapter is followed by a set of questions and suggested activities. The purpose and scope of the book is set forth in the following brief excerpt from the Preface:

This small book is an attempt to help high-school students become aware of their prejudices, to understand the nature, origin, and effect of prejudices, and to suggest activities which can help reduce them. It is obviously only one of several methods of attacking prejudice. It is expected that additional factual data on race, culture, and minority-majority group problems will accompany or follow the use of this book, and, most important of all, that the teacher's attitude and the classroom activities will be incentives to the reduction of prejudices.

The book is published by Harper and Brothers and sells for one dollar. Others are in preparation. For information write the Bureau for Intercultural Education, 119 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York City 19.

A reading guide on American Slavs will be interested in a recent pamphlet, *American Slavs: A Bibliography*, which was

prepared by Joseph S. Rousek, of Hofstra College, in co-operation with Patricia N. Pinkham. A separate bibliography is provided for each of six nationality groups included under the general term "American Slavs": Bulgarian, Czechoslovak, Polish, Russian, Ukrainian, and Yugoslav. The pamphlet opens with a general bibliography. The list of materials for each nationality group is divided into two parts. Part I consists of separate sections of general works, biographies and autobiographies, children's books, and novels. Part II lists articles only. The pamphlet may be obtained from the Bureau for Intercultural Education for thirty-five cents.

*Improving Readers of the School race re- Review will also be in- lations terested in learning that the Summer Number of the *Journal of Negro Education*, a Quarterly Review of Problems Incident to the Education of Negroes, is given over in its entirety to "Education for Racial Understanding."* Indeed, this number of the *Journal* is the Yearbook Number containing eighteen chapters on a wide range of topics relating to the problem. Copies may be obtained at two dollars each from the Bureau of Educational Research, Howard University, Washington, D.C.

AWAKENED INTEREST IN CHARACTER EDUCATION

FROM time to time editorial comment in this journal has centered on the appalling rise of juvenile delinquency.¹ Considerable speculation

has been made, and some research has been reported, on the causes of this disturbing aspect of American life. Too, the literature is replete with suggestions for preventing young people from developing patterns of behavior which are antisocial and criminal in character. Among the suggestions one finds frequent reference to the need for character education and religious training. A number of news releases and publications relating to character education have reached the editorial desk in recent weeks. No doubt the current interest in character education is an outgrowth of the nation's concern about delinquency.

Public-opinion survey The first news release comes from the National Opinion Research Center, University of Denver. The Center is "an academic institution working under a grant from the Field Foundation and the University of Denver." In a nation-wide survey conducted by the N.O.R.C., a cross-section of civilian adults—including rich and poor, young and old, men and women, whites and Negroes, Democrats, Republicans, and non-voters in cities, towns, and rural areas—were asked: "What do you think is the most important thing for children to get from their education in school?" It may surprise some readers to learn that "character education" tied with "academic subjects" for first place among the important outcomes of education, each receiving 34 per cent of the responses. An analysis of the

answers given by the respondents reveals, further, that persons with at least some college education place twice as much emphasis on character training as do those with no more than an elementary-school education. The more schooling people have, the more important they think character education is.

Legislative action A second news release on character education is contained in a recent issue of "Legislative News Flash," a mimeographed bulletin from the National Education Association. It describes a bill presented in Congress to provide a federal appropriation to assist the states in paying the salaries of teachers of subjects related to character training and in preparing teachers for such subjects. We quote from the "Legislative News Flash":

H.R. 5083. Cole (N.Y.); June 21, 1944 (Education).—Provides for the first year following enactment of the bill a federal appropriation of \$500,000, and each year thereafter an additional \$250,000 until the annual sum shall amount to \$3,000,000, and thereafter \$3,000,000 annually, to assist the states in paying the salaries of teachers of subjects related to character training. Provides also for a federal appropriation of \$1,000,000 for the fiscal year first following passage of the bill, thereafter an additional sum of \$1,000,000 per year until the annual appropriation is \$5,000,000, thereafter \$5,000,000 per year, to assist the states in preparing teachers of subjects related to character training. It is further provided the states will match federal funds dollar for dollar. Creates a Federal Board of Character Education to be composed of four citizens who "shall be persons of outstanding

achievement in the field of education or youth training and of them there shall be not less than one representative each of the Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish religious faiths." Members of the Federal Board, other than the U.S. Commissioner of Education, "shall receive a per diem salary at the rate of \$10,000 per annum." The Board would administer an appropriation of \$250,000 per annum for research, studies, investigations, reports, etc.

Books to develop character The growing problem of disorderly conduct and antisocial behavior among young people and the trend toward moral decay in society are likely to cause an increased demand that the schools do something about character education, and educators generally will acknowledge the need for it. But the troublesome question is "How?" One approach, not a new one to be sure, is suggested by a new reading guide entitled *Character Formation through Books: A Bibliography*, with the subtitle "An Application of Bibliotherapy to the Behavior Problems of Childhood." This 79-page pamphlet contains 241 titles chosen after careful examination of some 2,000 books. The titles, carefully annotated and character indexed, are classified into five levels: primary grades, lower grades, middle grades, junior high school, and senior high school. In addition to the annotations, there appear below each title appropriate words or phrases designating the character traits or principles exemplified in the book. A detailed character index classifies all the books under such terms as "appreciation of

others," "co-operation," "discretion," "generosity," "integrity," "moderation," "promptness," "sanctity," "tolerance"—to mention only a few.

The underlying assumption of the bibliography is that the reading of wholesome books makes a contribution to character formation. More than that, through a carefully directed reading program children whose behavior patterns are antisocial or otherwise abnormal might glean, from their reading of specific accounts of the behavior of other people in circumstances similar to their own, general principles governing conduct, ideals, and attitudes of mind. This reading guide was prepared by Clara J. Kircher and is published by the Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.

How to get along with others Among the outcomes of education which the respondents to the public-opinion survey conducted by N.O.R.C. thought important, "how to get along with other people" ranked fifth, receiving almost as many votes as "citizenship education."

An appreciable number of adults would like to see the schools make some contribution to the problem which all of us face in a complex society, learning how to live with others. Unless we can learn to live together amicably and with understanding in the home, in the school, in the church, and in the numerous other small groups of which most of us are mem-

bers, it is not likely that we shall succeed with the larger goals of wholesome intercultural relations and international understanding. There is a certain glamour associated with doing something about race relations, minority groups, and good will among nations—all of them noble and necessary, to be sure—but school people must not lose sight of the need for cultivating harmonious living among young people and adults in the more immediate and less spectacular associations of daily group living. The American people appear to be growing less and less able to make the personality adjustments necessary to successful living in the family group, if the appalling increase in the divorce rate is a reliable index. Is this problem unrelated to the larger problems of intercultural and international understanding?

Fortunately many schools are giving increasing attention in the curriculum and in guidance to personal and social adjustment of young people. Readers of the journal will wish to examine, in this connection, a new book entitled *Learning To Live with Others: A High School Psychology* by Alice and Lester D. Crow, published by D. C. Heath and Company. The scope of the book may best be given by naming the titles of its eighteen chapters: "Applying Psychology to Life," "Getting Along with People," "Understanding Personality," "Developing a Fine Character," "Why Personalities Differ," "Intelligence and Human Behavior," "Your Attitudes and

Emotions," "Your Drives, Motives, and Ideals," "Interest and Attention," "How You Learn," "Improving Your Learning," "How To Study," "Living with the Family," "Adjusting to School Life," "Experiencing Social Relations," "Striving for Vocational Success," "Taking Time Off for Play," and "Successful Living."

A REPORT ON LANGUAGE-TEACHING IN THE ARMY

DURING the next few months there will be considerable discussion, as there already is, of the remarkable results which have been achieved by the armed forces in their specialized training programs. In all probability there will be some clamor that the schools teach the G.I. way, and many school people will be seeking to find in these programs magical methods to revolutionize education.

One of the school subjects taught the G.I. way about which much is being said and written is foreign language. In the August number of *Fortune* appears an article entitled "Science Comes to Languages," which opens with this arresting paragraph:

Everybody has heard miraculous tales of the linguistic achievements of thousands of U.S. soldiers taught under the auspices of the armed forces. Even after the miracles are properly discounted there remains one solid fact: Americans, millions of whom have done time in high-school or college language courses without acquiring any real skill, need no longer apologetically assume a predestined monolingualism. What has happened is a great technological revolution.

The enthusiasm for the Army methods is further illustrated by these brief excerpts from the *Fortune* article:

The University of Indiana's trainees in Finnish, after several months' study, spent week ends in Finnish communities . . . they sang Finnish songs, listened and replied to Finnish speeches of welcome. . . .

Students who completed the nine-month Army course at the University of Iowa could understand, speak, argue, debate, and could act in Italian plays, ad-libbing in Italian when they forgot lines. . . .

When the Army selected 224 officers, most of whom knew no Chinese, to work with Chiang Kai-shek's troops, it was induced to take a linguistic scientist, Corporal Charles Hockett, off a leaf-raking assignment and order him to teach the officers. One month before sailing to China, Hockett knew no Chinese. He spent the month analyzing the spoken language. Then he sailed with the officers and worked as many hours as he could stay awake on the sea voyage to India and the train ride from India to China's back door. On reaching China not only had every officer lost his fear of Chinese (the goal the Army had set), but everyone could speak a modicum of it and had enough grasp of its structure to begin at once expanding his command.

In an effort to examine these enthusiastic claims and to ascertain the merits of the methods used by the Army, the Commission on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association of America undertook a survey of language classes in the Army Specialized Training Program. Under a grant of funds from the Rockefeller Foundation, the study was undertaken in February of this year and completed shortly before suspension

of most of the A.S.T.P. A staff of six field workers, "carefully chosen on the basis of competence in several foreign languages, successful experience as teachers, good judgment, and freedom from prejudice in favor of any particular method," visited a total of 427 language classes in forty-four colleges and universities in every section of the country. They also held conferences with "local directors of language programs, with teachers of classes, with individual trainees, and with college and university administrators and faculty members, on every campus visited." Immediately following their visits and collection of data, the six field representatives and the chairman of the Commission on Trends in Education began work on the Report. It has been issued under the title *A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program* and may be obtained for twenty-five cents from the Commission on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association of America, 100 Washington Square, New York 3, New York. The general conclusions reached by the study are contained in the following excerpt:

For the purpose of this report the results of language-teaching in the A.S.T.P. may be considered fairly only for those trainees who had had no previous recognizable experience in hearing or speaking the foreign language which they were studying.

Regarding the achievements of the trainees on this basis, the survey staff found that for a very considerable number of trainees the results, while by no means miraculous, were definitely good, very satisfactory to the

men in charge of the program, and very generally gratifying to the trainees themselves. Wherever the staff found careful and appropriate organization and co-ordination of teaching procedures, capable senior instructors and drillmasters, adequate supervision and control of the work, and skill and resourcefulness in the construction and adaptation of teaching materials, encouraging and worth-while results were achieved. In short, a considerable percent of the trainees did acquire the ability to express themselves with fluency and reasonable accuracy in the foreign language which they were speaking for the first time, including a good pronunciation, and a high level of ability to understand the spoken language as employed by different native speakers under circumstances representing normal speaking conditions.

There is considerable evidence, too, that the consistent and intensive use of the oral approach by no means eliminated the opportunity to acquire reading ability. In view of the great amount and variety of printed materials actually used by the trainees in preparing for oral practice of one kind or another, as well as for extra-curricular and purely recreational purposes, silent-reading ability, while it was not an announced objective of the program, undoubtedly was generally acquired to a very appreciable extent.

An examination of the Army program reveals a number of factors

which help to explain its success and which should be given favorable attention by our schools. In the first place, attention must be drawn to the fact that the program called for a high degree of concentrated and intensive effort. The program was set up to give students "at least ten hours a week of oral practice and three to five hours a week of formal instruction in the structure of the language studied." A second important factor was size of class—one teacher to ten or fewer students. A third factor was motivation. Few students in high school or college even remotely approach the soldier's motive for learning a foreign language. Still another important factor was the concentration on the oral use of the language and the great amount of practice in speaking with teachers for whom the language they were teaching was native. The excellent results actually achieved by the armed forces, on the one hand, and the somewhat reckless claims for the newer methods, on the other, merit careful examination by teachers and administrators.

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HAROLD A.

ANDERSON, assistant professor of education and director of student teaching at the University of Chicago. E. C. KELLEY, professor of secondary education at Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan, points out that the secondary school has failed in the past to serve all youth of high-school age, discusses why it is imperative that the secondary school broaden its base to include all youth, and suggests some of the implications that a policy of education of all youth would have for the program of the secondary school. KARL W. DYKEMA, member of the Department of English at Youngstown College, Youngstown, Ohio, maintains that, since language change is inevitable, prescriptive grammar has no place in the English language. CHARLES I. GLICKSBERG, teacher of English at South Side High School, Newark, New Jersey, discusses the factors which influence the formulation of a school philosophy and describes the experiences of the faculty of one school in such a formulation. WILLIAM A. BROWNELL, professor of educational psychology at Duke University, maintains that adults are unable to use the mathematics which they have learned in school, not because they have forgotten it, but be-

cause they have failed to understand the mathematical concepts, and he urges the reorganization of instruction to provide for mathematical learning that is meaningful and that will function in out-of-school situations. ARTHUR E. TRAXLER, associate director of the Educational Records Bureau, states that reading is one of the most difficult of all abilities to measure accurately and discusses seven problems of measurement of reading ability. GORDON N. MACKENZIE, professor of education at the University of Wisconsin, working through the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction as curriculum coordinator for a state-wide curriculum study, and LEO G. BENT, assistant principal and director of guidance at the Wisconsin High School, University of Wisconsin, present a list of selected references on the organization of secondary education.

Reviewers of books CHARLES W. BOARDMAN, professor of education at the University of Minnesota. JOHN C. MAYFIELD, instructor in biological science in the College of the University of Chicago. CHARLES D. FLORY, consulting psychologist at Stevenson, Jordan and Harrison, Incorporated, New York City. KENNETH J. REHAGE, teacher in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago.

OUR HIGH SCHOOLS MISS TOO MANY YOUTH!

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THE group in our society which suffered most during the recent depression was our youth—our young people of secondary-school and college age. They suffered most because they had passed the age when they were accorded the protection of children and had not yet attained all the advantages of adulthood. They were known as the "lost generation."

This lost generation of the past decade is the group which is now throwing itself in the way of the oncoming war machine of our enemies with such magnificent courage. From being an unwanted group in our society, it has risen to write history. As we look ahead, there is grave danger that we shall repeat in the postwar world the mistakes of the 1930's. The children who are in our elementary schools are the youth of tomorrow. Their one best hope for a chance to grow up and to find a place in society lies in the schools. Unless we begin to plan now and to build at the earliest possible date, we shall miscreate another lost generation.

Many of our secondary schools are working near the breaking-point now. Even with reduced enrolments caused by war service and employment, the schools seem overcrowded. Some of them are operating on double shifts, and many of them are carrying exces-

sive class loads. Life in the secondary school is simple, however, compared to what it is about to become. Soon we shall have large numbers of returning veterans in need of secondary-school services. Many of the youth who have quit school to work in war plants will be unemployed and will be seeking additional schooling. We shall also have the surge of oncoming youth from the ranks of our present children. Because of decreased employment opportunities, they will stay in school longer than do the pupils of today.

THE IDEAL OF EDUCATION FOR ALL

The problem is greatly complicated, of course, by our ideal of education for the masses. If we believed in education for special groups but not for the masses, the problem would be comparatively simple, because we could then set up programs for these special groups and leave the rest of the young people out of the educational picture.

Education for special groups in a society, however, is repugnant to the ideals of democracy. In a democracy we must believe that every individual has value—is of unique worth. This means that no one in our society may be neglected. It means that we are bound to value all members of our society, even though all cannot make

equal contributions. If we value every individual, this means that those pupils whom we have regarded as dull, because they did not suit our traditional curriculums, have the same right to education, on the level where they can profit, as have the so-called "bright" pupils. It means that every individual in our society must be met where he is educationally and developed as far as possible. We must learn to value the "dumb" in the same way that we have always valued the "smart."

PRACTICAL ARGUMENTS FOR EDUCATING ALL YOUTH

For very practical reasons, quite aside from idealism, it is essential that we educate all, not part, of our population. Having seen dictatorships in action, we are confirmed in the notion that we want to live in a democracy. But democracy depends on judgments made by the common people, and these judgments cannot be intelligent and workable unless the common people are informed. An illiterate populace could not operate a democracy. Conversely, the more educated and informed the populace, the better democracy will work. This gives deep meaning to the statement that we are in a race between education and chaos. Since our frontier is gone, we must now stop running away from our problems and face them. If we can get enough of the common people well enough informed in time, we need not fear the outcome.

We cannot, then, afford an ignorant mass of people if we wish to preserve

our democratic institutions. We cannot survive a citizenry part educated and part uneducated. We cannot operate a democracy by educating the top layer, neglecting the others, and encouraging the separation of groups in our society. An educated populace can save our institutions; an ignorant mass will destroy them.

There is much comment these days about the failure of the schools to teach citizenship and to instil understandings of co-operation and government. It is doubtless true that the schools could do more than they do in the teaching of citizenship to the persons now in the schools. But a large part of our bad citizenship and the bad voting which makes machine politics possible may be laid to those who fall outside our present secondary-school program. If our program were broad enough to include everybody, the schools would, for the first time, have the opportunity to teach citizenship to all. By giving everybody opportunity to gain experience in government, the schools will, for the first time in their history, really be able to bring their full influence to bear on this problem.

Practically, again, it is far cheaper to educate people than it is to support them uneducated. The schools are in the business of taking potential public charges, who may have to be fed or jailed, and of developing them into producers and consumers. Citizens who produce and consume are the real source of wealth. When a potential public charge is developed into a producer and consumer, the economic

gains are tremendous. This is indeed changing a liability into an asset. A country all the citizens of which are competent to produce can enjoy prosperity; a country which is trying to carry a large number of incompetent and underdeveloped people will have economic trouble.

Much has been said recently about juvenile delinquency. The cost of delinquency and adult crime has been estimated to be as much as thirteen billion dollars a year. Adult criminals are almost always grown-up juvenile delinquents. These delinquents, for the most part, fall outside our present educational setup for one reason or another. Most delinquents who are above the compulsory school age are not in school. In many cases no one knows where or how they spend their time. They are, in fact, in training for adult careers of crime. If our educational plans included everyone, it seems obvious that much of our annual bill for crime could be saved.

Then, too, in America everyone helps pay for the educational system and therefore has an equity in it. If the system is operated for the benefit of only part of society, some are being denied the equity for which they have paid. If some cannot profit by our education, we are permitting a section of our people to become the educationally disinherited. They are, in effect, denied their equity in the educational system because of the nature of the offerings of the school.

It is hoped, to be sure, that America realizes the full implications of edu-

cation for all. If we educate all the people, we shall not then have a class that will do our "dirty" work for a rate of pay that prohibits a decent standard of living. If we want a servant class to work for substandard wages, the best way to secure it is to keep an ignorant class. With everyone informed, we shall have either to do our own "dirty" work or to pay what it is worth. Retention of a servant class in ignorance for exploitation is, of course, contrary to the ideals of democracy.

SELECTIVE CHARACTER OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

We then come to the inevitable conclusion that the secondary school must be organized to serve an entire age group. This means that it must be so constituted that it can take all comers within that age group. This the secondary school has never done. It has been a selective agency because its offerings fitted the needs of only part of the population. The approach of the secondary school has been to establish a curriculum which someone thought good and then to permit those who could not use this curriculum to leave school. The fact of the matter is that many young people of high-school age have fallen outside the scope of our secondary schools. Large numbers of them either have been unable to use the curriculums offered or have not been interested in them. Some 40 per cent of all young people of high-school age do not attend any school. A school system which leaves

40 per cent of its populace outside its program is leaving out too many for the good of democracy.

It makes a great deal of difference whether the curriculum is established and the student body is then fitted to it, or the student body is observed and the curriculum is constructed to fit it. If the secondary school is going to serve an age group rather than a special group, it will have to look at the people in this age group, analyze their needs, and construct the curriculum on that basis.

This does not imply any criticism of the values that we have held in education. The so-called "classics," the academic subjects, are as valuable as ever. The transmission of the heritage of the race, to the extent that it can be meaningfully transmitted, is still important. The questions we must ask, however, are: To whom do we teach the classics? When do we teach them? How do we teach them? Do we try to teach something to a person who cannot learn it, because we think it is good? It is no aspersion on the value of trigonometry to say that not everyone can or should learn it. It is valuable for those who can master it and can make some direct or indirect use of it. It is not good for everybody.

IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATION FOR ALL

The implications for the program of the secondary school as it attempts to serve everyone in an age group are tremendous.

We need a much broader program.—

Too many people are falling outside our present program. Too many people either cannot or will not use our present offerings. We must have a broader base so that we can serve more people—a base as broad as the needs and interests of humanity itself.

The offerings of the secondary school which serves an entire age group will have to include many activities that have never been seen in any high school before. In order to do this, it will be necessary to change our ideas of what constitutes education. We will have to recognize the fact that, when any student operates on a level that is educative for him, then that experience becomes education.

When we derive the curriculum from the student body instead of making it up in advance, we shall probably find that we shall need many new manual activities. This expansion will be necessary because our schools have emphasized learning from books and have, therefore, retained those pupils good with books and have lost the others. Many worthy people are best able to operate on a manual level. Society has, in the past, given too much credit to people who cannot use their hands but who can absorb book learning. We have almost gone so far as to say that people who cannot use their hands are "smart" and those who can are "dumb."

Educating a child on a manipulative level must not be confused with what is commonly called "vocational education." These manual activities

serve the purpose of general education in that their main purpose is to contribute to the growth of the individual. Some of these activities may be used later for earning a living and thus may, in fact, be vocational in their nature. By this criterion, however, the many purely intellectual activities may also be vocational. The study of Latin may be vocational if the person studying it uses it later to make a living. It is usually dangerous to justify an educational activity on the basis that the child is going to use that activity to make a living. Activities in general education must be justified by the extent to which they contribute to growth.

We need to build new schools.—We need these new schools for at least two important reasons: (1) Our present schools do not adapt themselves well to a curriculum broad enough for an age group; they are built largely for academic teaching. (2) We are badly underbuilt if we are to educate everybody. Our present schools are crowded now, and we are not doing much more than half the task which will confront us in the postwar world. We probably have enough classrooms adapted to the academic subjects if nobody takes these subjects except those who can profit by them; therefore we ought not at this time to build more schools like the ones we have. Our new schools should be planned so that a wide variety of activities can take place in them. They should be the physical expression of the thinking which comes from studying

the needs of the whole age group. They should supplement and not duplicate our present facilities. Such buildings will enable us to make changes in our curriculum more fundamental than the mere addition of a course or two here and there as various pressures are felt.

We need educational programs which combine school and work.—Learning to work is surely a justified educational activity. Since we are continuing to invent labor-saving devices every day, it seems inevitable that, in the not too distant future, jobs will again become scarce. We as a society must face this fact. One of the great difficulties encountered by a young person before the war, as he sought his place in society, was that in a scarce labor market he was inexperienced. Now that he is needed, he is no longer rejected because of inexperience, but he will be again rejected if we do not provide experience as part of his education. When work is scarce, it is probably sound to say that young people under eighteen years of age should not compete in the labor market with older people. But, if work experience contributes to the education of the young, we have a right to demand that a small fraction of the work of the world be set aside for educational purposes.

This will mean that young people will go to school part time and work part time. The proportion of work and school will, of course, depend on the needs of the individual. Some may go to school much and work little, while others may work much

and go to school little. In order for young people to have a share of the work of the world for educational purposes, employers and labor must be convinced of the importance of work as education. The employer must come to see himself as educator, taking his part in furnishing the experiences which the school cannot provide. When the employer sees himself as educator and when education becomes the project of the entire community instead of the project of one small institution in the community, then the divisiveness that has often stood between the school and the community will tend to disappear.

The length of time needed for education must be reconsidered.—If we believe in individual differences, we can no longer assume that large masses of students are ready to leave school at the same time. We shall stop turning out large graduating classes made up of some individuals who are ready to take their places in the community and many individuals who are not. A person will then go to school as long as it is profitable for him to go. He will cease to go to school when he is ready to take his full place in society. While the chronological ages of students at the time of leaving school will vary greatly as the needs of the individuals are considered, each student ought to be under the control of the school until he is at least eighteen years of age. This makes youth-accounting possible for a longer time than at present. It should prevent both the exploitation of youth and

the danger, in some cases, of young people's drifting into delinquency.

Some secondary schools are now considering the addition of the thirteenth and fourteenth years. If a student goes to school as long as it is profitable for him to go and leaves school when he is ready and able to take his place in society, the question whether a high-school course should be four, five, or six years in length will not arise. With our present academic curriculum, the addition of two years will not solve the educational problems of youth except in a few individual cases. While these few individuals could doubtless profit by two more years of academic training, and should have it, to many it would mean the addition of two more years to a curriculum which they have already rejected.

The secondary school should not be a preparatory school.—The secondary school should have a program of its own, justified by the present needs of those who attend it. When those who teach consider the school as a place for preparing students for another institution, its curriculum becomes bent from the needs of youth and toward the requirements of that institution. The secondary school should give young people the very best program that can be devised, so organized that it will improve the quality of living of the young people attending the schools. The colleges should then be permitted to choose, with the help and the consent of the high-school counselor and the principal, the stu-

dents whom they think they can use. Some young people are ready to go to college after two years of high school. Others are not ready until a much later date. Those secondary schools that offer mainly a college-preparatory program are really training an intellectual elite. Any development of a program planned primarily for the elite—intellectual, economic, or hereditary—is contrary to the tenets of democracy. We need a program that will develop leaders, but these leaders must emerge through their contributions to, and by the consent of, their fellows. They must not be selected from above and accorded better treatment than their fellows. Such treatment tends to separate them from their fellows and to reduce their capacity for democratic leadership.

We must plan to spend more on education.—The kind of education herein discussed cannot be produced cheaply. It is not assembly-line or mass-production education. We can afford to spend more money on education if we want to. When the whole community becomes educator and when parts of the young person's education come from various sections of the community, the community will then not see the school as a thing apart and as a spot where taxes may be saved. Parents are most willing to spend money on their children, but they have to see the problem as their problem and they have to see its implications for democracy.

We must have more and better guid-

ance.—In addition to teachers who are more conscious of their role in guidance, we shall need many more guidance counselors. When we have no set curriculums, each young person will need to be well known by some individual in the school. This individual will need to know the student's abilities and his needs. He will need to know where employment is to be found and what the nature of such employment is. He will need to know how much time a young person should spend in school and how much in work. He will need to know when the young person no longer benefits in an educational way from the work that he is doing. He will need to know where fair employment practices are in vogue and where the exploitation of youth is taking place. He will, therefore, be unable to guide as many students as is now customary. The ranks of these workers, therefore, will need to be greatly augmented.

The school must concern itself with placement.—The agency most capable of placing a youth in gainful employment is the one which knows the most about him. Opportunities for the employment of young people who have received education and experience must be known to the guidance counselor. He must help decide when the student is ready to leave school and where the young person can best merge with the community in gainful employment.

If the secondary school intends to go forward in the postwar world on its

present narrow base, serving only part of the community, other agencies will begin to serve those young people who fall outside this base. These agencies will be inclined to take in a little more territory than was intended when they were created. They will thus begin to chip away at the present narrow base of the secondary school, and this base will become narrower instead of broader. The secondary school will then become a limited institution, serving only a small fraction of the community. The major task of educating the age group will be in other hands. This is what happened in the unhappy 1930's when the school and the community lacked the imagination and the resources to serve all

youth. So desperate was the situation of youth, with no place in school or in employment, that federal agencies were created which became, in effect, educational institutions. The school is best qualified to handle the educational problems of the community. The intrusion into the educational picture of other agencies staffed by people who do not understand education is an expensive and inefficient recourse, but it is the only recourse if the school does not meet its full responsibilities. The time is ripe for the secondary school to move into the broad area of education for all youth. To fail to plan now is to attempt to solve the problem after it is upon us. Next year may be too late.

DO WE NEED TO TEACH GRAMMAR?

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SIR PHILIP SIDNEY, in his *An Apologie for Poetrie* (probably written in 1580 or 1581) made the following statement regarding the English language:

Another will say it wanteth Grammer. Nay truly, it hath that prayse, that it wantefh not Grammer: for Grammer it might have, but it needes it not; beeing so easie of itselfe, and so voyd of those cumbersome differences of Cases, Genders, Moodes, and Tenses, which I thinke was a piece of the Tower of Babilons curse, that a man should be put to schoole to learne his mother-tongue.¹

When Sidney wrote this passage, Spenser had already published *The Shephearde Calender*, dedicated to Sidney. A decade later the first half of *The Faerie Queen* appeared, and within another decade Shakespeare had established himself as a leading dramatist. Less than a half-century after Sidney had written these remarkable words on the English language, England could look back on her greatest period of literary production, on a literature written in that English language which, as Sidney said, needs no grammar. Milton's epic works did not appear for nearly a century after the composition of Sidney's *Apologie*, but Milton, too, had learned English in the nongrammatical era of Marlowe, Shakespeare, and Jonson.

¹ Sir Philip Sidney, *An Apologie for Poetrie*, p. 70. London: A. Constable & Co., 1905.

Shakespeare, Chaucer, Milton, and Spenser are the greatest English poets; and all of them were untouched by grammatical instruction in their mother-tongue.² Not until Dryden do we find a great English writer who decidedly does not share Sidney's opinion. In dedicating his *Troilus and Cressida* to the Earl of Sunderland, Dryden made several remarks on the unsatisfactory character of the language that he wrote so well:

But how barbarously we yet write and speak, your Lordship knows, and I am sufficiently sensible in my own English. For I am often put to a stand, in considering whether what I write be the idiom of the tongue, or false grammar, and nonsense couched beneath that specious name of Anglicism. And have no other way to clear my doubts, but by translating my English into Latin, and thereby trying what sense the words will bear in a more stable language.

² "The regular grammatical study of our language is a thing of recent origin. Fifty or sixty years ago, such an exercise was scarcely attempted in any of the schools, either in this country or in England."—GOOLD BROWN, *The Grammar of English Grammars*, p. 96. New York: William Wood, 1851 (tenth edition).

Brown bases his statement in part on an even more positive one which he quotes from Sheridan's *Elocution* (second American edition, 1762): "Nor had he far to seek for the source of our impropriety in the use of words, when he should reflect that the study of our own language, has never been made a part of the education of our youth."

Addison, a little later, showed a similar lack of confidence in his natural feeling for the language. Under the false impression that "that" was a less ancient relative pronoun than "which" or "who," he went through the later editions of *The Spectator* and changed his natural "that's" to artificial "who's" and "which's." Today, as we all know, the "Tower of Babilons curse" has fallen upon us so completely that we are all put to school to learn our mother-tongue. What has happened in the past 360 years to bring about so complete a reversal in attitude?

The pretended answer is easy enough to find, for it was repeated endlessly by the eighteenth-century grammarians: that the language needed to be improved and that grammar would improve it. The absurdity of the argument should scarcely require demonstration in view of the superb literary production of the Elizabethans; but, since this argument is still heard, there is a need to answer it and also the contention that grammatical instruction is necessary to prevent linguistic degeneration.

ORIGIN OF PRESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR

The force that brought about the widespread teaching and learning of English grammar appears to have been social emulation. Medieval society was essentially static; a man expected to remain economically and socially where he was born. Since the notion of improving one's social position was as remote as the possibility of improving one's economic condi-

tion, there was no serious concern with the means of rising in the world. Modern society (by "modern" is meant post-Reformation in England), on the contrary, not only permits but encourages radical social and economic changes in the position of the individual. However infrequent these may be in fact, there are enough to foster a general belief in their possibility. The history of this transition from a static to a nonstatic society is the history of the emergence and the rise to supremacy of the middle class.

The widespread acceptance of English grammar coincides with the final victory of the middle class, and it was the middle class which embraced most cordially the authoritarian teachings of this grammar. This simultaneous achievement of supremacy was not mere coincidence. Authoritarian grammar offered to the middle class the means of making its final claim to equality with the aristocracy—equality based on mastery of the language of that aristocracy.

The physical and economic security of the English middle class had been pretty firmly established before the end of the seventeenth century. Even the privilege of dissenting from the established religion was tacitly permitted. Many a bourgeois was financially fully as well off as many a lord. He began to ask, therefore, why he was not as good as a lord, especially since he could dress as well, ride as well, dance as well, drink as well, and gamble perhaps even more disastrously. One superficiality, however, could not be readily acquired: the ability to

speak the language of the lord. A lord's grammar, his vocabulary, and especially his pronunciation were the product of his background, and that background was not bourgeoisie.

The middle class looked for teachers to teach them the language of the English aristocrat, just as they had looked for, and found, dancing teachers, fencing teachers, and riding teachers. The demand brought a supply. Grammarians and orthoëpists appeared in never-ending number, and many of them wrote books. Most of these books were very bad, and none of them did for the buyers what those buyers hoped. But the books did do one thing: they established firmly in the minds of the middle class the conviction that good English was something that could be reduced to rules, that the rules were in the books, and that a thorough study of the books would lead to a command of good English, that is, the language of the "best people."

The achievement of complete supremacy by the middle class necessarily had a profound effect on the educational system. Throughout the seventeenth, eighteenth, and early nineteenth centuries, American and English secondary and collegiate institutions were attended by an exceedingly small proportion of the population. The instruction was strictly non-professional, excepting in the two important fields of law and theology and in the unimportant field of medicine. The students were, therefore, on the one hand, would-be clergymen and lawyers; on the other,

would-be gentlemen of leisure. The middle class, with its utilitarian outlook, brought constant pressure to introduce more "useful" courses into the curriculum—courses which would help a man to get on in the world. When universal free education was developed in nineteenth-century America, it was for the benefit of the middle class, since nineteenth-century America scarcely acknowledged the existence of a proletariat.

Changes in educational systems, like changes in political systems, are generally the result of compromises between contending groups rather than the result of a carefully considered plan based on a new philosophy. For our discussion the gradual reduction in Latin instruction and the corresponding increase in English instruction are the most interesting of the changes.

The teaching of English in the early American public schools, it may legitimately be presumed, was done largely by poorly educated teachers; and it was certainly based on the works of the eighteenth-century grammarians, since those were the only books on the English language available. The approach of these books was arbitrary and authoritarian. The backgrounds of most of the teachers provided them with no basis for a critical evaluation of the textbooks; and, like many an English teacher today, the teachers in nineteenth-century America taught the material in the books blindly, with implicit faith in its validity.

In eighteenth-century England,

then, the middle class came to have a considerable confidence in English grammars. In nineteenth-century America that confidence became faith and was firmly established among the population as a whole.

It may be well to summarize here the profound difference in the attitude of cultivated Elizabethans toward language as compared with that of cultivated speakers today. The cultivated speaker of Elizabeth's day was generally an aristocrat. His social position was established by birth and inheritance, and any change in his position could be effected only through the favor of another aristocrat. This favor was hardly to be gained through the use of a particular grammar or pronunciation, especially as appreciable differences in speech were expected from noblemen who came from different parts of England. Today the cultivated speaker of English may have fully established in his own mind what his social position is, but it is not, at least in this country, legally established by a title. He must convince his fellow-citizens, not only of his financial adequacy, but of his cultural superiority as well. The medium he uses to exhibit his culture is language, and through his use of language he makes the impressions which are so important to him in his professional activities. Of course the Elizabethans made their impressions through language too, but it was the felicity with which they used language that was important. Today it is the correctness that counts.

LANGUAGE CHANGE INEVITABLE

The preceding discussion has been based on the assumptions that language does not need to be reformed and cannot be anyhow and that the grammars of the eighteenth century along with their nineteenth- and twentieth-century progeny were unsound in conception, inaccurate in content, ineffective in teaching, and vicious in effect.

The most convincing evidence of the inevitability of linguistic change is to be found in the history of a language, provided that enough of the history is known to permit a long perspective. In English, for instance, a change in the long vowels had probably begun before Chaucer's death and was certainly not complete until well after the death of Shakespeare. Since this change required at least two centuries for its completion, it is extremely doubtful that anyone was conscious of it while it was occurring. Yet apparently everyone throughout the period had been guilty of slight mispronunciation—although mispronunciation is hardly an accurate term, since nobody recognized the variation. Generation after generation varied its pronunciation ever so slightly, though always in the same direction, until long *i* had changed from a Chaucerian pronunciation rhyming with "see" to our pronunciation rhyming with "sigh." All the other long vowels, with few exceptions, underwent similar radical transformations.

This change in the long vowels is merely characteristic of what is con-

stantly occurring in all living languages, though the changes may not necessarily be so great nor so rapid. One of the later pre-English stages of our language, which linguistic scholars call "primitive Germanic," underwent a far more radical change in becoming differentiated from its parent tongue. The nature of that change can be partially indicated by the statement that in general all *p*'s, *t*'s, and *k*'s became *f*'s, *θ*'s, and *h*'s and that all *b*'s, *d*'s, and *g*'s became *p*'s, *t*'s, and *k*'s.³

Comparable changes occur in inflections and in syntax, and with equal inevitability, because they are the result of a linguistic categorical imperative whose effects can always be recorded but seldom predicted. The would-be reformers of language find themselves, therefore, in conflict with scarcely perceptible forces which work in mysterious ways. What victories they may have had are few and often illusory. Consider, for example, the long and futile struggle of the reformers to eliminate the preposition from its final position in the sentence—a position which it had already occupied some hundreds of years before the crusade against it began—or their even more abortive attempts to outlaw the retained object in a sentence such as "He was given the book," and the use of "being" with a past participle in, for example, "The house was

³ A further discussion of these and similar changes can be found in any standard history of the English language. See, for example, A. C. Baugh, *History of the English Language*, pp. 22 ff. and 294 ff. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1935.

being built." Even so notable a victory as the besmirching of "ain't"—an ancient and a very useful word—is recognized in actual practice by only a minority of our population.

Another equally forceful argument against arbitrary reformation of language should be evident from the axiom that the primary function of language is communication and, from its corollary, that the speaker communicates most effectively when he uses words in the sense in which they are understood by the hearer. "Their marriage transpired yesterday" might be intended by the speaker to have no reference whatever to the time when the marriage occurred, for he might be using "transpire" in the sense of "became known." To the great majority of American listeners today, however, it would mean only that the marriage had taken place yesterday.

"It is of the last importance that English criticism should clearly discern what rule for its course . . . it ought to take. The rule may be summed up in one word—*disinterestedness*." These words are from Matthew Arnold's "Function of Criticism at the Present Time."

"Next was the question: Are modern students actually disinterested in reading?" These words are from a recent article by a college English instructor, published in an important pedagogical journal. It is apparent from the second quotation that Matthew Arnold, were he writing today, would communicate more success-

fully if he used a word other than "disinterestedness."

NEED FOR A NEW KIND OF GRAMMAR

The grammars of the eighteenth century were necessarily unsound in concept, for there was no knowledge of linguistic processes, and little general knowledge of any languages other than Greek, Latin, and French. The literatures of Greece and Rome were considered the finest that had ever been produced, and it followed logically from this conviction that the languages in which these literatures were written were necessarily the finest languages. The final logical step was to assert that a language approached perfection as it resembled Greek and Latin. English could be improved, therefore, by forcing it, whenever possible, to conform to the rules of Latin.

Latin was a highly inflected language; the grammarians therefore attempted to force English to retain all inflections still alive and to revive certain obsolescent ones. For instance, Gray originally published his famous poem as the "Elegy Wrote in a Country Churchyard" because "written" was not in his speech, but the grammarians "corrected" the "wrote" to "written." The purpose of the eighteenth-century grammarian was not to describe the language of cultivated writers and speakers as it was—the function of the descriptive grammarian today—but rather to describe it as he thought it ought to be. Many of the early grammars cite numerous

passages from the most eminent authors to illustrate what should not be done. Goold Brown, for example, in his *The Grammar of English Grammars*, published in 1851, includes hundreds of passages from eighteenth- and nineteenth-century authors "for correction." Today the descriptive grammarian quotes passages from established writers to illustrate what good usage is. Many modern grammars, however, though they profess in their prefaces to be accurately descriptive of good modern usage, are in reality as rigidly prescriptive as were the eighteenth-century prototypes on which most of them are based.

Many scholarly discussions of the use of "shall" and "will" are available, but few writers of grammars and handbooks give any evidence of being acquainted with these works, preferring instead to copy almost verbatim the arbitrary rules formulated by the eighteenth-century grammarians. In the course of many centuries English has developed an exceedingly flexible but extremely complex verbal system, while permitting its nominal (nouns and adjectives) system to simplify to the point where it is almost inflectionless. The grammars, however, following the outline provided by Latin, attempt to strait-jacket our verbal system in the six tenses of Latin, generally ignoring completely such expressions of futurity as "I am going," "I go tomorrow," "In times that are to come," and implying that futurity is always

expressed by "shall" and "will." With nouns, also, there is still discussion of the dative and accusative cases, although there is no longer any inflectional means by which those cases can be shown in English.

The material in these books is necessarily relatively ineffective as instruction because it often demands a usage in actual violation of the usage of cultivated speakers. Since we generally speak like those with whom we associate, our usage will reflect that of our associates. "Who did you give that book to?" for instance, is a construction usually condemned in the grammars; but, as the scientific grammarians have been at some pains to point out, it is a construction almost universally used by cultivated speakers not only today but for many centuries past. It is an oral usage, to be sure, but it is also essentially an oral question; there would be little occasion to write it. Many cultivated speakers would deny that they used it, but their testimony would be valueless since no one is so conscious of his speech that he realizes at all times what the syntax of his sentences is.

The viciousness of the books can be illustrated from the psychological circumstance that, when we speak, we are so fully occupied with the ideas we are expressing that we are seldom conscious of the grammar we express them in. We may, therefore, say "Who did you give that book to?" without realizing that we may have used an objective "who," but when someone else says the same thing we

may notice it and condemn him severely for what we regularly do ourselves.

When Sidney used the word "grammar," he was thinking of the only grammar he knew, that of Latin and Greek. It was a prescriptive grammar, and necessarily so, because it was intended to assist a nonspeaker of the language to speak and to write Latin or Greek with some approach to naturalness and ease. Sidney saw clearly that a prescriptive grammar of that kind should have no place in instruction in the mother-tongue. Unfortunately the grammarians who followed Sidney did not see so clearly as he did.

✓ Grammar should not be prescriptive. It should attempt, rather, to describe honestly and fully the language that we speak and have spoken. Such a descriptive grammar, with its long view into the past, will destroy any fears of linguistic degeneracy and assist us to choose the kind of language that we want to use. Today we can no longer depend on those aristocratic distinctions which assured Sidney and his fellows of the respect of their society no matter how they might speak. If we expect to be accepted as cultivated members of our society, we must speak cultivated English. But we shall not learn that language if we depend on the prescriptive grammars based on the eighteenth-century tradition. Instead, we must listen attentively to the language of our fellows and imitate that which we approve.

EXPERIENCES IN FORMULATING A PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

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IN PREPARATION for the process of evaluation by a committee from the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards, each school is required to formulate its educational philosophy. At the outset the point should be made clear that the educational philosophy arrived at is the one composed and accepted by the members of the faculty, not one handed down like the Mosaic laws from Mount Sinai. In the last analysis, the philosophy that is formulated is bound to prove, like the original Constitution of the United States, a compromise document, a balance of forces. We must expect conflict, ideological tension, and, when it fails to appear, we can be fairly certain that the teachers, for various reasons, have doctored their philosophic statements in the hope of approximating some hypothetical administrative ideal. The tendency to indulge in stereotyped, conformist thinking must, if it appears, be vigorously counteracted.

FACTORS INFLUENCING FORMULATION OF A SCHOOL PHILOSOPHY

The philosophy of education that finally emerges, assuming for the moment that it is an honest expression of the ideas and the beliefs of the teach-

ers, is conditioned by a number of important factors. First, teachers are prone to accept a philosophy of education that is democratic in principle, if not always in practice, because they have been subjected to the cultural compulsives of their environment and because they are part of an educational system that has been traditionally dedicated to the democratic ideal. Second, the official and "authoritative" formulators of educational theory in this country have consistently advanced democratic doctrines, and teachers, by and large, tend to echo the ideas that they have picked up from their professors of education or from the standard books on the subject.

At this point a warning must be sounded. The formulation of educational theory without examining its relevance to educational practice is stultifying and dangerous. The pragmatist insists that ideas do not exist in and of and for themselves. They are situated in a habitat; they are rooted in practice. The test of their validity is determined by applying them in a particular context. One does not first frame a philosophy of education and then select suitable methods by means of which to give that philosophy the

breath of life. Nor does one adopt the strictly empirical procedure and construct a philosophy of education by a series of inductive steps. The process is dialectical, theory guiding practice, and practice fructifying and controlling theory.

Unfortunately the psychological difficulties that stand in the way of drawing up a truly representative educational philosophy for any given school are varied and complex, and the administrator must take full account of them before he undertakes the task of preparing the faculty for the ordeal of evaluation. To many teachers the word "philosophy," particularly the phrase "philosophy of education," is like a red flag waved before an already angry bull. It brings to the surface a latent prejudice; it provokes a decidedly hostile reaction. Here is a luxury word, pretentious, vague, intangible, another example of professorial "hot air." When harnessed to education, it becomes doubly objectionable and is condemned in no uncertain terms as the changeling child of professors of education interested in protecting their vested interests. Unlike starry-eyed, metaphysical-minded professors of education, high-school teachers profess to be concerned with "practical" problems—classroom management, the teaching of required subject matter, methodology, courses of study. These are the things that count, and these are the things that can be profitably discussed. Hence the acid contempt in their voices when teachers refer to a "philosophy of education" or

their instant resentment when they are asked to put their philosophy into words. There are some who would sabotage (there is no other word to describe their attitude) the work of evaluation by asserting dogmatically, without regard to the contradiction involved in their statement, that they have no philosophy of education. When pressed to the wall, however, they will reveal that they have a deep-seated distrust of educational theory as propounded by a certain university and that their views, if set down, would scorch the paper and would call forth a barrage of administrative anathemas. Others make the required gesture of conformity; they consult a few books dealing with the subject and copy a few "respectable" dicta. Their duty has then been done, their assignment carried out.

The reactions of a goodly number of teachers on the faculty of the South Side High School, Newark, New Jersey, indicated that the teachers had apparently never taken the trouble to formulate a philosophy of education and that they were at the time disinclined to make the effort. The formulation of a philosophy was a bit of idealistic window dressing for which they had no patience. Some debated among themselves whether they should write down what they actually thought or whether they should simply put up a good rhetorical front. The former was dangerous, it seemed, because it might be misconstrued; it would make more glaring the discrepancy between their theory and their performance.

The feeling prevailed that it was wisest and safest to swim with the dominant ideological current.

Whether the periodic evaluation of a secondary school serves a useful purpose could form the basis of an instructive controversy, but there can be little doubt that such evaluations do arouse intense and prolonged discussion, though not always favorable in tone, among the members of the faculty. To the extent that evaluations do arouse discussion, they must be considered a positive good. Looking on themselves as tough-minded, as interested primarily in pedagogic methods and specialized subject matter, high-school teachers, especially those who have taught for a considerable number of years, tend to fall into a ritualized and, in their estimation, efficient routine. Believers in the virtues of the practical, they look with undisguised suspicion on theories as the creation of academic Don Quixotes. Educational philosophies are intellectual caviar reserved for professors of education, who from some lofty metaphysical height attempt to teach others how to teach, disseminating precepts and principles that have as much bearing on the experience of classroom teaching as the Sermon on the Mount has on the exigencies of the daily struggle in our acquisitive society.

The prospect of being evaluated thus creates a conflict situation. On the one hand, there are those whom we have described: the minority who grumble and criticize and scoff. On the

other hand, there is an alert, intelligent, conscientious group of teachers who believe that such an evaluation contributes to the welfare of the school. For this group the process of evaluation promotes a mood of stock-taking, of self-scrutiny, of collective inquiry and insight. Many of the teachers face the ordeal of evaluation as an experience that must be undergone in the line of duty. All of them, however, eventually realize that, whatever their personal feelings in the matter, the evaluation will and must take place. Naturally they are eager to make the best possible showing. Is not their professional reputation at stake?

OBJECTIONS OF TEACHERS

When it was made known that the Evaluation Committee would arrive the following term and that the official blanks would soon have to be filled in, the faculty got busy. The anticipated objections cropped up. Some teachers insisted that they had no philosophy of education. When it was pointed out that every teacher was bound to have a philosophy of education just as each man possessed a philosophy of life, they were still unconvinced. More disturbing in nature were the requests of some well-meaning teachers that they be told what to put down on their blanks, which asked for a statement of their philosophy of education and their educational objectives. If they could only consult a master chart, they would feel greatly relieved. No amount of assurance that their personal ideas and beliefs would

more than meet the requirements, that there was no such thing as a master chart, would allay their flurried anxiety. More troublesome to deal with were teachers, cynical in outlook, who felt that the administration did not want their personal philosophy of education, that these forms would be cleverly manipulated until an official philosophy that looked impressive on paper had been worked out. These teachers felt that the business of holding discussions and practicing democracy was but a convenient observance of form. It would be much simpler and far more honest if the principal instructed the teachers what he wanted them to say. Also constituting a problem were those teachers who turned to the reference books in the library and dutifully copied out fine-sounding phrases about democracy in education, when it was quite obvious to all those who knew them that they did not practice what they were preaching.

Thus it is that a few malcontents on the faculty can create serious difficulties by generating a thick, contagious atmosphere of psychic resistance. Their opposition is directed not only toward the evaluation. Their objection goes deeper; they resent the time consumed at faculty meetings, the long discussions, the formulation of principles and policies, the detailed reports from committees. Reduced to simple terms, their objections run somewhat as follows:

1. Formulating a philosophy is academically interesting but not practical. The administration should draw up a comprehen-

sive program and then see to it that it is carried out. Philosophical theories serve no useful purpose.

2. All this is a criminal waste of time. Where are we getting? What is our object? These faculty meetings merely give some teachers a chance to blow off steam or to hear themselves talk.

3. One teacher declared: "My philosophy of education is summed up in the pay check I get each month. The older I grow, the more cynical I get. Philosophy is all right for men in executive positions, who have something to gain by dispensing such idealism. We know better, and we are not fooled."

There are many other characteristic expressions of dissent, but all of them range around these common nuclei. The cynicism is rampant, aggressive. It is not so much the cynicism that is deplorable; for cynicism dates back to the time when institutionalized man first began to think. It is the complacency, the cocksureness, the dogmatism of the cynicism that is so irritating. What these unregenerate cynics fail to realize is that philosophy is no academic luxury, no visionary theory, but a fundamental, inescapable need of man. Our behavior is conditioned by what we believe, by the theories that we hold of ourselves and of the world. The man who condemns philosophy on the ground that it is not "practical" is unwittingly committing himself to a philosophy of the "practical." Even more contradictory and intolerable is the position of those who insist, in flagrant violation of the elementary canons of logic, that they believe in nothing, for absolute skepticism is impossible and self-defeating. If we believe in nothing, then we must believe in our disbelief. We must de-

fend our skepticism against all challengers, for someone may come along to denounce our skepticism as the height of folly.

The suspicion voiced by a few teachers, namely, that this evaluation had been "framed," had no foundation in fact. To entertain such a suspicion casts an ugly aspersion on the functional validity of democracy in education. The committee on philosophy was given a completely free hand in forming its decisions and in giving its report. The principal imposed no restrictions and made no attempt to interfere or to influence the opinions of the members.

COMBINING THE INDIVIDUAL PHILOSOPHIES

The blanks were submitted for study to the committee on philosophy so that the philosophy of the school as a whole might be drawn up. The statements on the blanks ran the gamut from the verbose and the meaningless to the laconic, the noncommittal, the tritely conventional. A number of teachers, either because they wished to conceal their real thoughts or because they suffered from a dearth of ideas, contented themselves with quoting the seven cardinal principles of education. Only a few invested the time and labor to pen a serious, sincere, if not always original, philosophy of education. Apparently what held some back from frankly voicing their beliefs was the fear that these beliefs would be too "radical" for the administration to swallow. Would it not be more sensible to put down what was

expected of them? When assured that such was not at all the case, that the views of the individual played a statistically minor role, and that in any event their statements would be held in strictest confidence, they took the plunge. In almost every case of this sort, the manifesto, when composed, contained little that was heretical—nothing that some professor of education had not said before and said with greater cogency and force of conviction. These dissident reports, however, were extremely significant in disclosing why some teachers were dissatisfied with the established scheme of things. They also revealed a creditable desire to experiment, to correct abuses, to get to the root of inefficiency and waste.

The problem of collating these questionnaires and producing from the medley of responses a consistent and representative pattern of thought was indeed formidable. How should the committee reconcile the numerous lines of divergent thought? How discover a central, unifying principle running through the replies? The differences, after all, were as striking and as important as the points of agreement. How then arrive at a broad yet valid picture of the educational philosophy held by the faculty as a whole? How formulate a body of principles and objectives that would be truly representative? The problem was not one of statistical manipulation; it involved an exercise in logic. Merely to draw a graph indicating the dominant ideological trend would not serve the purpose. The discrepancies

might be more significant than the numerically dominant curve followed by those who adhered to traditional conceptions and methods. Nor would it do to count noses and to allow the majority opinion to prevail. A basic pattern of thought and practice, however, should emerge. Otherwise, how does the school succeed in functioning at all, and how is evaluation of the school possible?

It is, of course, possible to exaggerate the degree of difference that exists. The same problem confronts the psychologist when he endeavors to draw generalizations concerning human beings from a statistically controlled sample of their behavior. He can concentrate on their differences, emphasizing the fact that each individual is a microcosm *sui generis*, unique, a configuration of psycho-physiological impulses that have no exact biological or social parallel. Fortunately he knows that, despite these obtrusive and vital differences, there is a biological pattern of similarity on which he can depend. It is this which enables him to formulate "laws" of conduct and to experiment with methods of predicting the future, with methods of control. The same procedure can be followed, *ceteris paribus*, in handling the problem of formulating the educational philosophy of a school.

Fundamentally there is more agreement than one would suspect. The great majority of our questionnaires enthusiastically indorsed the democratic creed as applied to education. They repeated the ideas and ideals

expressed by prominent writers on education. Judging by these replies alone, there is great hope for the future of the schools. The schools are managed according to sound and admirable democratic principles, and the teachers have been well educated. The trouble with these philosophical premises, however, as with so many of the resolutions drawn up on New Year's Eve, is that teachers do not follow them consistently. There is a lamentable gap between theory and practice, between the target aimed at and the object hit. Many of these impressive philosophical statements are either echoes of what has been written on the subject, which has become part and parcel of the educational beliefs of our time, or else they are no more than a species of ingenious verbalism.

VALUES OF THIS EXPERIENCE

The experience gained with the faculty of one school is probably not unrepresentative. On the whole, despite the grumbling and protests of a few cynics, the teachers were cooperative; conscientious in the performance of their day-to-day duties; interested, genuinely interested, in promoting the welfare of the young. They have, however, an incurable distrust of teachers' colleges, of "philosophies of education," and of the pedagogical jargon that professors have spouted so copiously. Common sense, practice, classroom experience, an intimate knowledge of how to get along with children and a sympathetic understanding of their problems—these

are more important than tons of abstract theory.

Despite the undercurrent of indifference or outright opposition, the administration was fully justified in going ahead full steam with the plan for co-operative evaluation. It was a job that had to be done. In any event, the opposition represented but a small minority. Part of the opposition was won over by an attitude of patient but firm reasonableness. Those who were still unconvinced did not wish to be disturbed. No institution run on democratic principles can hope to secure perfect co-operation. Envy, ambition, jealousy, clashes of personality, conflicting views, crass cynicism, disgruntlement, the poison of frustration—these, in varying degrees, prevent the school from functioning at optimum efficiency. Outwardly teachers will profess to agree with the principal, but, in moments of unguarded privacy or in the recesses of their hearts, they severely criticize his methods, disparage his ability, and even satirize him personally. The discerning and humane principal is aware of these hidden eddies of disaffection and wisely ignores them. Steadfastly he takes the long view, refraining from fruitless argument or from arbitrary imposition of his ideas on the faculty. By proceeding with the plans for the co-operative evaluation of the school, he accomplishes much of value. Whether the teachers realize it or not, their participation soon becomes genuinely co-operative. They form committees, they exchange ideas, they engage in

controversial but rewarding discussions. The teachers' room is filled with the excited hum of debate. A critical spirit begins to prevail.

All in all, the evaluative survey is of decided value to the school. It wakes up members of the faculty who have never devoted any attention to the problem of formulating their philosophy of education. It compels the fundamentalist in education to reconsider and defend a position that he has dogmatically taken for granted. It forces the "progressive" educator to re-examine his principles and premises. Teachers are required to view the educative process and the school as a whole, to crystallize their purposes and objectives, to make up their minds critically on a number of conflicting but fundamental issues. Grievances can now be aired, criticisms offered, reforms suggested. The old room can be swept clean. Some teachers point to the ineffective system of guidance that exists. Others feel that the method of supervision is lackadaisical and unsatisfying. A few complain about the mechanical and unfair way in which teachers are given a grade. From these discussions, criticisms, and suggestions, even before the evaluative committee arrives on the scene, a pattern emerges. A better co-operative attitude has been developed, a finer understanding of the interrelationship and interdependence of all departments of instruction, a more vivid realization of the ideal of integration which the school must strive to reach.

ESSENTIAL MATHEMATICS FOR MINIMUM ARMY NEEDS

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IN THE presentation of the topic of this article, a choice must be made between outlining the contents of essential mathematics and discussing the need for reorganizing instruction in mathematics. Here the latter topic will be discussed, partly because of greater personal interest in matters of instruction, partly because of the tendency to change mathematical content alone without altering instructional procedures, and partly because of the publication in another place of a discussion of the essential mathematical skills and concepts.¹

It may not be out of place, however, to say a few words about the mathematical concepts and skills listed in the discussion just referred to. Nearly two hundred Army officers, all of them conversant with the problems of training enlisted men, were the sources of information.² Almost without excep-

¹ "Essential Mathematics for Minimum Army Needs: Report of a Committee Working with the Co-operation of the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch of the Army Service Forces and the United States Office of Education," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (October, 1943), 243-82.

² Besides the writer, who served as consultant for the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch, the committee which collected data comprised: Virgil S. Mallory, New Jersey State Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey, chairman; C. L. Thiele, Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan;

tion these officers testified (1) that even in the first eleven to thirteen weeks of basic training enlisted men have need for certain mathematical skills and concepts (2) which they do not now possess. The extensive testing which has been done both in the public schools and in the Army supports this second point. Examination of the concepts and skills checked by training officers as essential reveals (3) that the mathematical needs of enlisted men in their basic training are largely arithmetical, with but the simplest phases of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry.³ Further analysis of these data discloses (4) that the mathematical skills and concepts essential for successful adjustment in the Army are no less essential for successful and intelligent adjustment in civilian life.

and F. L. Wren, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. Other members of the committee who contributed to the planning and preparation of the report were: Rolland R. Smith, Public Schools, Springfield, Massachusetts; and John Lund and Giles M. Ruch, consultants for the United States Office of Education.

³ This statement holds, of course, only for basic training. Officer candidates and the many enlisted men chosen for specialized training have mathematical needs which go far beyond the content defined here as essential. This paper deals only with the mathematics of the basic training period.

The two last-named facts explain why this article will relate only incidentally to problems of instruction in the traditional sequential mathematics courses of the high school. The writer, however, agrees completely with the proposals of a committee appointed by the United States Office of Education and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics that teachers of secondary-school mathematics have the responsibility of renewing, keeping alive, and extending the concepts and the skills taught earlier in school and of finding new applications and arranging new skills in applying what is taught.⁴ The discussion here will be confined largely to the problem of securing greater competence in mathematics at lower levels, at levels which will insure success in the basic training of the Army and in living a successful and enriched life on the part of the average citizen.

There are three ways out of the present predicament: (1) do nothing at all, (2) organize refresher courses, (3) reorganize instruction.

IMPRATICABILITY OF A DO-NOTHING POLICY

Few teachers would be willing to adopt a do-nothing policy, and the public would not permit them this choice even if they wished to make it.

⁴ "Pre-induction Courses in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (March, 1943), 114-24. This article may also be found in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVII (April, 1943), 85-100, and in *Education for Victory*, I (April 1, 1943), 12-17.

Because the general public now knows what in the last three decades it has tended to forget, namely, that mathematics training is highly important, mathematics will probably be restored to its rightful place in the curriculum.

OBJECTIONS TO REFRESHER COURSES

Refresher courses are offered on the assumption that deficiencies are due to disuse and that brief periods of contact with subject matter will reinstate the knowledge and the abilities that have been lost. Several objections can be raised to the theory of refresher courses in general.

First, one may doubt whether a short period of remedial instruction could change mathematical illiteracy into mathematical competency. As is well known, there is no simple, straight-line relation between accomplishment and time spent in learning. If the first period of study produces ten units of achievement, a learner is fortunate if the second period produces eight units; the next produces four; and the next, one. Progress in the late periods of learning is notoriously slow and painful.

Second, one is justified in wondering about the permanence of ideas and skills which are restored by refresher courses. If the ideas and skills as they were taught at the outset succumbed so sadly to disuse, why should we expect these ideas and skills to last any longer after they have been rebuilt?

Third, one may be reasonably certain that, except in comparatively few

cases, ideas and skills re-established by refresher courses will be found wanting under the test of practical use—a test which is continually presented in both Army and civilian life.

The last two criticisms merit attention, particularly since they lead directly to the constructive suggestions to which the larger part of this paper is devoted.

Deterioration of skills.—First, why is it that mathematical competence deteriorates so rapidly under conditions of disuse? As already stated, the assumption which supports refresher courses is that students who have been proficient forget what they have learned merely because they have no occasion to use it. We are here confronted with a matter of psychological fact. The reader is familiar, no doubt, with the so-called "curves of forgetting," which show rapid and immediate decline once learning has been interrupted. These curves have usually been derived from experimentation with nonsense syllables and with other learning tasks equally devoid of meaning. Unfortunately, these curves have been generalized to cover all learning tasks.

More careful work on learning and forgetting, in which the tasks set are within the understanding of the learner, has resulted in curves of forgetting of a quite different shape. In these instances there is seen to be considerable retention, even over long periods of time. In the case of mathematics, in which all learning tasks can be related to one another so that each suc-

cessive task involves much of what has previously been learned, the retention could be extraordinarily complete. The fact that retention is so far from complete signifies that the learning was not meaningful to start with—that the learning resembled too closely the sort of thing one perfors does with nonsense syllables. In these circumstances of meaningless learning, it is not surprising that the curve of mathematical forgetting shows sudden, if distressing, decline.

Now, suppose that, to remedy the situation, remedial drill is instituted; that is, suppose that high-school students are subjected to more of the same kind of learning which they have previously employed. What must be the outcome? It can scarcely be other than the reinstatement of concepts and skills which will again be quickly lost if not kept alive by frequent use. No one can guarantee this continuous use, either in the Army or in civilian life. No, the remedy to be prescribed is not more of the teaching which produced the unhealthy results. The remedy is a *different kind of teaching*.

Uselessness of skills.—We come now to the second major objection to refresher courses. The ultimate test of learning is usability. Our knowledge is not truly learned until we can transfer it and use it in situations that differ from those in which it was originally learned. Mathematics is not taught in the public schools as an end in itself or merely to enable students to solve the problems of the textbook.

Interviews with well over 175 Army

officers in charge of basic training again and again brought the same criticism: even when enlisted men are able to compute accurately, they do not know in practical situations what mathematical processes to use or how to use them. We might say, for these officers, that most enlisted men lack "mathematical sense," and "mathematical sense" is a learning outcome on which refresher courses must inevitably default. Such courses, when successful, can develop skills in computation, but they may leave the student as helpless as ever to *use* those skills. Skills which are learned mechanically can be used only mechanically. Skills which are to be used intelligently must be learned through the exercise of intelligence.

MATHEMATICAL AIM IN REORGANIZATION OF INSTRUCTION⁵

The preceding several paragraphs contain the gist of what the writer wants to say by way of practical and positive suggestions. Students must see sense in what they learn, and they must have plenty of practice in using what they learn in real problem situations. We meet here the two major aims of mathematical instruction, namely, meaning and application—the mathematical aim and the social aim.

It is curious how widespread is the

⁵ As has already been explained, there must be a reorganization of content as well, a phase of the subject not treated in this paper. The reorganization of content, however, must be accompanied by corresponding changes in instructional procedures.

conspiracy to teach mathematics in a nonmathematical manner. Arithmetic in particular has suffered from this conspiracy. The notion that arithmetic is a branch of mathematics needs to be dusted off and to be given a conspicuous place on the educational mantel. Recognition of the fact would reorient the teaching of arithmetic overnight. If teachers took the vow to teach no arithmetical idea, process, or skill unless they could make it sensible to children, they would have to change drastically their classroom practices. They would find that they have to teach arithmetic mathematically, for the sense in arithmetic inheres in the mathematics of numbers and of number processes. This statement does not mean that visual and other sensory aids would be discontinued. Quite the contrary; their use would be doubled or trebled, for through such aids many mathematical meanings and relationships are most readily represented. The statement does mean that, at all times, numbers and number processes, whether presented objectively or abstractly, would be taught from the standpoint of mathematics.

Illustrations of neglected mathematical meanings.—A few of the changes which would result from the decision to teach arithmetic mathematically may be illustrated here.

We should bring forward into the open our decimal system of number notation, and we should teach its characteristics and then use them to explain our procedures and algorithms

in operations with whole numbers. We write the figures of numbers in column addition and we "carry" in addition as we do because we must respect the place values of ones (units), tens, hundreds, and so on. We "borrow" in subtraction as we do because the places as they extend to the left represent steadily higher powers of ten. We place partial products in multiplication and quotient figures in division as we do because the nature of our number system compels us to do so. The rationale of algorisms and of operations with whole numbers is seldom taught in the elementary school. Instead of developing understandings, we substitute rules, such as: "The last figure of the partial product goes under the multiplier figure" (but why?), and "The quotient figure goes over the last figure of the partial dividend" (again, why?). These rules our students "learn" temporarily, only to forget them, and they are then unable to compute confidently and correctly. If their learning were buttressed by understandings, which is to say, by a grasp of the mathematical principles involved, they would not thus be at the mercy of faulty memory.

Another example of neglected mathematics lies in the meanings of the fundamental operations. What teacher has not, time and again, been confronted by the question, "Yes, but do I add, or subtract, or multiply, or divide?" The significance of this question is not always appreciated. The student, when he asks this question, reveals a lack of understanding. He is

unable to see, in the language of the verbal problem, the cue or sign which, in abstract examples, tells him directly what to do with the given numbers. Nor do we help the student much when we answer his question by saying, "Why, you divide," or "You multiply." True, the student goes happily to his seat, where, Heaven willing, he gets the correct answer. It would be far better if the student, answered thus, were to ask the teacher, "But why do I multiply?" Then he might learn—and we might teach.

The fundamental operations are mathematical methods of answering a few quantitative questions, and they should be so taught. Of course, these questions may appear in practically countless language forms. One investigator discovered 1,900 language forms for addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division in simple one-step problems.⁶ Whatever the language form, it can be reduced to one or another of the basic questions. Adding is what we do with numbers when the basic question is "How many in all?" and when the numbers are of unlike size. We may be asked to find the total cost or length, or to find how many in the three boxes or places, or to find how much the given things weigh altogether, or to find the distance or the whole amount, or what not; but these language forms are merely variants of the same basic question. Similarly,

⁶ Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychological Analysis of the Fundamentals of Arithmetic*, chap. v. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 32. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1927.

subtracting is what we do with numbers when the basic question is "How many are left?" or "How many are gone?" or "How many are needed?" or "What is the difference?" We multiply when the need, as in addition, is to find how many in all but the numbers are of the same size; and we divide in order to find how many times a larger number contains a smaller or how many are in each equal part or share of a number.

The aspect of meaning which has just been discussed relates to the purposes of the fundamental operations. There is another aspect which needs to be taught as well, namely, the effect of the operations on the numbers concerned. With minor exceptions, in the case of whole numbers the sum in addition is larger than any addend; the remainder in subtraction is smaller than the minuend; the product in multiplication is larger than the multiplicand; and the quotient in division is smaller than the dividend. The student who is possessed of these understandings is protected from absurd answers. He is capable of estimating answers and of approximation as is no student who studies arithmetic from which mathematics has been eliminated.

Teachers of secondary-school mathematics are aware that, as a rule, high-school students know little about common and decimal fractions and about per cents, and less about ratio and proportion. When only one Army inductee in three can select the correct answer for " $7 - 5\frac{3}{4}$ "; only one in four, the correct answer for ".32 \div .64";

and only one in four, the correct answer for "5 is 20 per cent of what number?" it is obvious that something is seriously wrong. All these examples, taken from results obtained with an earlier form of the Army Classification Test, should be solved by inspection. That they are not so solved and that they are not correctly solved even with paper and pencil is hardly explicable as the result of forgetting. Individuals who have clear insights and complete understandings simply do not forget to this extent. There is a more valid explanation for failure with such examples. This explanation is neglect of mathematical meanings.

Responsibility of secondary-school teachers.—"All very well," the high-school teacher may say, "but what you are talking about is the concern of elementary-school teachers." True, it is the concern of elementary-school teachers, and it ought not to have to be the concern of secondary-school teachers. High-school teachers ought to be able to assume that students, when they come to high school, have an ample store of rich meanings and understandings. In the face of the evidence, however, this assumption is wholly invalid. High-school pupils do not have these meanings and understandings. The implication seems to be clear that, until such time as elementary-school teachers accomplish what they should accomplish, high-school teachers will have to repair the damage done, either in connection with systematic sequential courses or in special classes which are remedial in character. The schools cannot jus-

tifiably continue to turn out students who are incompetent in the essential aspects of mathematical learning.

One further point should be made with respect to this matter of mathematical meanings. So far only the mathematical meanings which ought to be taught and learned in the elementary-school grades have been discussed. It should be clear that, if meanings are crucial to sound mathematical learning in these grades, they are equally crucial to the mathematical subject matter of the high school. Let teachers of high-school mathematics, once they have made good the deficiencies of earlier learning, take the vow suggested for teachers of arithmetic—to teach nothing that they cannot make seem sensible to their students. Once high-school students learn meaningfully the mathematics of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, criticism of high-school mathematics will diminish, for both students and their elders will have evidence of the worth of the learning.

SOCIAL AIM IN REORGANIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

The mathematics taught, at whatever level, must function in practical situations. One assurance that mathematics will function lies, of course, in the teaching of mathematical understandings—in the teaching of mathematics of whatever sort as a system of meanings. This is only a partial assurance, however, since it is wholly possible to understand mathematics as abstract subject matter without

being able to use mathematics. This statement is true of arithmetic, and it is equally true of algebra and of geometry and of trigonometry. To guarantee that mathematical learning will function, pupils must have many experiences in using what they learn. A well-rounded program of instruction will provide these experiences.

Limitations of textbook problems.—Like mathematical meanings, real applications are commonly neglected in the elementary school. Abstract computation obviously involves no application. Neither does the solution of verbal problems from the textbook. Textbook problems, no matter how carefully their content is chosen, are not real problems to children; they are but another kind, albeit a more difficult kind, of abstract example.

The slight extent to which children relate the content of textbook problems to actual life and living may be illustrated. The writer has asked groups of children to solve a half-dozen verbal problems and has then unexpectedly asked these children to take a test which included three key words from each problem and a number of words which did not appear at all in the problems solved. The children were directed to underscore the words which occurred in the problems they had just solved. Their selections appear to be made almost at random; they mark unused words about as frequently as they mark used words. It could be urged that the results of the test would have been different if the writer had motivated interest in

the problems before assigning them for solution. In answer to this objection it may be said that such motivation is exceedingly rare in the classroom and that what was done in this case is typical of teaching procedure. If this be true, then the behavior of the children on the experimental test is similar to their behavior in the arithmetic class.

There is another simple way in which to demonstrate the lack of real significance which children attach to verbal problems. With a straight face and apparent innocence, read children a problem or two similar to the following:

If a rooster weighs $5\frac{1}{2}$ pounds standing on one leg, how much does he weigh when he stands on two legs?

If it takes Mother three minutes to boil an egg, how long will it take her to boil six eggs?

Then note the matter-of-fact way in which the children go about the solution of the problems. Bradford, an English psychologist, has reported a study in which he asked children to work unsolvable problems.⁷ The impossibility of solution in no way prevented his subjects from attempting solutions.

Even adults accept the absurdities which appear in mathematical problems. Thorndike, in *The Psychology of Arithmetic*,⁸ lists several absurd prob-

⁷ E. J. G. Bradford, "Suggestion, Reasoning, and Arithmetic," *Forum of Education*, III (February, 1925), 3-12.

⁸ Edward L. Thorndike, *The Psychology of Arithmetic*, chap. iv. New York: Macmillan Co., 1922.

lems which he found in textbooks twenty years ago. They are of the following type:

If a man can run 100 yards in $9\frac{3}{8}$ seconds, how long will it take him to run 880 yards at that rate?

When this problem has been read to classes of college students, practically all the students have at once multiplied $9\frac{3}{8}$ by 8.8 without discovering or suspecting anything absurd in the problem. By the way, what is the absurdity?

To point out the limitations of textbook problems is not to deny them value. Children should solve textbook problems, many of them, not because the problem content makes children intensely aware of the social value of the ideas and processes that they learn, but because verbal problems contribute primarily to mathematical meanings by illustrating the great variety of language forms in which the demands for this or that process may be couched.

As has been pointed out, mathematics at any level may be learned as a closed system. So learned, its uses are fairly well confined within the limits of that system. Many a child can accurately add compound denominate numbers and establish the fact that 3 miles, 175 yards, plus 1 mile, 206 yards, make 4 miles, 381 yards, without comprehending any of the distances involved, to say nothing of being able to estimate and to measure such distances. Many a high-school student can solve correctly textbook problems in geometry which

require the Pythagorean formula without later recognizing the usefulness of this conception in raising the corner studs of barracks in the Army camp.

Making mathematics useful.—Teachers can best insure that mathematics will be permanently useful by making it useful during the learning. The writer does not for a moment advocate that mathematics be taught exclusively or mainly in an incidental way or in a program of activity units in which the mathematics too often is hidden and unidentified. He is suggesting that arithmetic and other forms of mathematics should be employed outside the mathematics period and outside the school and should be employed in connection with problems which are real to children. Arithmetic serves vital needs when it is used in keeping scores; in running the school store; in figuring comparative standings of class teams in an athletic or a literary league; in making budgets, in estimating expenses, in checking purchases; and so forth. Geometry serves vital needs when it is used in laying off a baseball or football field or a badminton or tennis court. Mathematics must escape the confines of the textbook, the class period, and the school.

If in this paper the writer has seemed less concrete in discussing the social aim than in discussing the mathematical aim, it is because he must be less concrete. The mathematical meanings to be taught can be isolated, but not the applications to be made.

Mathematical applications are real to the extent to which mathematics satisfies needs, and needs are highly personal. It follows, therefore, that the particular uses to be made of any mathematical skill or concept are peculiarly determined by the circumstances of the teaching—circumstances of time and place and opportunity. Lack of definite recommendations as to applications⁹ is no obstacle to teachers who recognize the importance of the social aim of mathematics. Their ingenuity will suggest ample occasions for the real use of what they teach.

Surveys of adult usage made in the past have uniformly shown school mathematics to be a waste of time and money and have dislodged mathematics from its favored place in the curriculum. These surveys have derived their strength from the fact that the adult subjects consulted did not recognize the mathematics which they actually employed and from the fact that they used much less mathematics than they might have used had they been properly taught. A sure way in which to convince the public that mathematical training pays dividends is to turn out a generation of students who do use the mathematics that they have learned.

⁹ A valuable reference in this connection is *A Source Book of Mathematical Applications*. Compiled by a Committee of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

PROBLEMS OF MEASUREMENT OF READING ABILITY

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READING is one of the most difficult of all abilities to measure accurately. The problems in the measurement of reading are due mainly to the intricate nature of the reading process.

The first problem is created by the lack of agreement among the specialists in this field concerning what reading is. Is it the development of a set of habits and the mastery of mechanics? If so, one would confine measurement to certain standardized devices, particularly the ophthalmograph, but comparatively few specialists are willing to accept this limited definition of reading.

Is reading the ability to get facts from the printed page? If so, reading achievement can be tested with a high degree of reliability, but this definition is likewise regarded by most experts as too narrow.

Is the most important characteristic of reading the ability to carry on the varied and complex processes which we commonly associate with thinking? Most specialists apparently prefer this view of reading. If this concept of the nature of reading is generally accepted, measurement in this field covers not only the testing of reading habits and of skill in obtaining facts

from printed matter, but it also includes the appraisal of ability to comprehend all types of reading materials, to form judgments, to appreciate literary quality, to apply generalizations, and to perform the varied kinds of mental activity characteristic of the fields of literature, natural science, social science, and the fine and practical arts, and of everyday living.

A second problem of measurement is created by the fact that, although it is recognized that there is a variety of kinds of comprehension, apparently no one has thus far formulated a list of the kinds of comprehension that is uniformly accepted as a basis of instruction. Until we are agreed on just what reading comprehension includes, it is useless to try to construct a test which will satisfy everyone. Certain psychologists have attempted to obtain a mathematical resolution of this question by means of factor analysis, but thus far these studies have not been carried far enough to serve as a generally accepted basis of testing.

A third problem of measurement finds its origin in the nature of word meaning. A test of vocabulary is generally accepted as a standard part of a reading test. A large proportion of

our words have several meanings. One cannot say that a pupil really knows the meaning of a certain word simply because he has given the correct response for it in a vocabulary test. One can only say that he knows the meaning which was called for by the test situation.

However, one should avoid over-emphasis on this limitation to the measurement of reading. The purpose of a vocabulary test is not to tell us whether or not a pupil knows all the meanings of the words of a particular list. The purpose is to *sample* a pupil's vocabulary knowledge and to obtain a *score* which may be useful as a basis of appraisal. Vocabulary tests are among the most reliable of all tests involving the higher mental processes, and they usually show rather high correlation with criteria of validity based on the daily work of the pupil.

A fourth measurement problem is related to the question of the reliability of the part scores or subscores on reading tests. The most effective remedial teaching of reading is based on diagnosis, which in turn depends on the measurement of different aspects of reading ability. The reliable measurement of, let us say, six or seven aspects of reading ability requires more time than most people are willing to give to testing. Reliability is dependent on the amount of time allowed for testing, the homogeneity of the items, and the number of responses that can be obtained in a given unit of time. In these respects reading tests fare badly. The most common type of

reading test consists of a series of paragraphs, each of which is followed by questions. It is difficult to make homogeneous questions on the various paragraphs, and sometimes this is not desirable. The number of questions which can be asked within a given unit of time is relatively small because of the amount of reading required before the questions are taken up by the students.

A fifth measurement problem is concerned with tests of rate of reading. The measurement of reading speed is not the simple matter that it at first appears to be. The main difficulty is caused by the fact that it is necessary to check on comprehension in some way, since rapid movement of the eyes over the material without understanding is futile and cannot be called reading in the generally accepted meaning of the term. The need to measure comprehension as well as speed has led to the evolution of at least five kinds of rate tests, but in none of these is the combination of speed and questions entirely satisfactory.

A sixth measurement problem is that of discovering the relationship between scores on reading tests and subsequent success in reading, in school work, and in different vocations. Just how much retardation in score on the Gates Silent Reading Test indicates a need for remedial help? Is ability to get the central thought of the paragraph, as measured by the Sangren-Woody Reading Test, closely related to the future success of the pupil in

the study of science? How rapidly must a pupil read the rate portion of the Iowa Silent Reading Test in order to do the reading expected of a ninth-grade pupil in a typical public high school? We can raise literally hundreds of specific questions for which we do not have the answers. Many long-time follow-up studies are needed.

A seventh problem related to the measurement of reading grows out of the need for careful and verified prescription based on the diagnosis resulting from the use of reading tests. At present we have reading tests with certain diagnostic features, and we have a large amount of material designed for use in a remedial, a corrective, or a developmental program. Thus far, however, no one has developed a highly valid and reliable diagnostic test and a practical set of teaching materials designed to be used directly in correcting the difficulties revealed by the diagnosis.

Notwithstanding the fact that perfect tests for diagnosing reading ability are not available, we need not be extremely pessimistic over the possi-

bility of prescribing a training program in reading that will take account of individual needs. Reading is a *unitary* process. While training that is specifically planned for the needs of a pupil as shown by diagnosis is more effective than are less specific procedures, there can be no doubt that training aimed at one reading objective is likely to spread over several other objectives. For example, improvement of reading vocabulary will enhance the ability to grasp the central thought of a passage, and the development of greater power of reading comprehension will indirectly increase reading speed. Thus, if a teacher is able to make even a fairly rough appraisal of a pupil's strengths and weaknesses in reading, he can be reasonably sure that his efforts at correcting the indicated weaknesses will not be wasted. This oneness, this unity of the reading process, is at once the *bête noire* and the saving grace of the multitude of measurers and remedial workers who have turned their attention to this intriguing field during the past twenty-five years.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GORDON N. MACKENZIE AND LEO G. BENT
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THE three aspects of secondary-school organization receiving greatest emphasis in current writings are (1) the growing recognition of the part that the junior college seems destined to play in establishing the soundest possible basis on which to insure adequate educational opportunities for youth; (2) the clarifying influence of wartime experience in defining the functions of secondary schools with respect to vocational training; and (3) the need for further extension of secondary-school programs to serve the intellectual and vocational interests of youth and adults whose needs are not being met by the offerings of the full-time day-school programs.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

502. JONES, ARTHUR J. "The Junior High School: Past, Present, and Future," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (March, 1944), 3-14.

An excellent review of the junior high school movement, with a statement of reasons for its gradual decline as a separate unit of organization in American school systems.

503. KOOS, LEONARD V. "Superiority of the Four-Year Junior High School," *School Review*, LI (September, 1943), 397-407.

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504. WOODRUFF, C. H. "A Tour of a Junior High School," *American School Board Journal*, CVII (August, 1943), 14-16. A description of the activities of the pupils in a junior high school. Indicates the relationship between the organization of the school and the purposes that it is to serve.

JUNIOR COLLEGE

505. DOWNS, L. McCARTHY. "State Junior Colleges for Virginia?" *Junior College Journal*, XIV (May, 1944), 423-26. A statement of the consensus of views expressed by educators in response to the author's inquiry which was conducted at the request of the governor of the state of Virginia in the consideration of a proposal to establish a system of state-supported junior colleges in that state.

506. FARISS, GERTRUDE HOUK. "The Educational Mountain Must Seek Mahomet," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (February, 1944), 241-42.

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507. GODDARD, ROY W. "A Postwar Objective," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (November, 1943), 97-98.

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508. KOOS, LEONARD V. "Junior-College Administrators and Their Scope of Function," "Opinions of Administrators on Organizing the Junior College," "How To Democratize the Junior-College Level," *School Review*, LII (March, April, and May, 1944), 143-50, 215-27, 271-84.
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509. LOUNSBURY, JOHN L. "Some Problems in Postwar Planning," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (April, 1944), 360-66.
Characterizes the needs of different classes of students who may be expected to enrol in junior colleges after the war and suggests that co-operative arrangements for meeting students' needs be worked out with federal and other agencies now engaged in organizing training programs for the same population groups.

510. MASTERS, B. E., and EBY, FREDERICK. "Texas Conference Points the Way," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (March, 1944), 192-98.
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511. PERCIVAL, W. P. "Canada Plans for Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (January, 1944), 195-96.
Explains proposals for developing a system of junior colleges as extensions of some 150 high schools in the Dominion to provide an extension of educational opportunities for youth in the postwar period.

512. TEAD, ORDWAY. "The Junior College Contribution," *Harvard Educational Review*, XIV (March, 1944), 118-26.
A stimulating discussion of the opportunity for fusion of liberal-arts and vocational-arts training under the flexible junior-college organization.

ARTICULATION

513. KOOS, LEONARD V. "Organizational Relationships of Junior College and High School," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XVIII (July, 1943), 399-407.
An analysis of data pertaining to the major aspects of junior-college programs, with reference to identifiable influences and advantages of the organizational unification of junior-college and high-school grades.

514. KOOS, LEONARD V. "Final Report on the Kansas City Junior-College Experiment," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVIII (October, 1943), 194-99.
Presents results of a follow-up inquiry concerning the graduates of the Kansas City Junior College in the course of an experimental effort to establish closer articulation of the junior college and the high schools of that city as well as to test the desirability of further reduction in length of the total school program.

515. LINDSAY, FRANK B. "Articulation of Areas of Secondary Education: Proposals of High School and Junior College Principals," *California Schools*, XV (June, 1944), 144-55.
Presents a definitive statement of the problem of articulation, identifying areas in which there is critical need for improvement, and lists proposals of the Association of California Secondary School Principals and the California Junior College Federation which contemplate the establishment of representative committees on relationships between secondary and post-secondary institutions.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION¹

516. FERN, GEORGE H. "Area Vocational Schools," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXXIII (April, 1944), 137-39.

¹ See also Items 465 ("Ten Years of Occupational Research") and 501 ("Youth's Share in the Manpower Pool—A Symposium") in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1944, number of the *School Review*.

Suggests three possible plans for organizing area vocational schools and explains how existing educational organization in each state can be utilized to advantage in the transition period in which the area schools may be established.

517. GRAY, CARL. "The Gray Plan for Post-war Re-employment," *Occupations*, XXII (October, 1943), 3-9.
Describes a comprehensive plan for meeting the problems of demobilization in the state of Connecticut, including suggestions for types of institutional training for persons of varying degrees of occupational adjustment.

518. MAGILL, WALTER H. "Shall the 'Vocationals' Be Kept Apart?" *American School Board Journal*, CVII (August, 1943), 10.
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519. MUFSON, FLORENCE ADAMS. "Safeguarding Labor Standards in Vocational Training," *Occupations*, XXII (March, 1944), 341-44.
Explains the implications of two federal laws, the Public Contracts Act and the Fair Labor Standards Act, for vocational training in schools which is based on actual production work.

520. SIMON, E. J. "Vocational Education in the Postwar Years," *Illinois Education*, XXXII (February, 1944), 171-72.
Advocates area vocational schools, flexible in organization, and closely co-ordinated with regular high schools to avoid unnecessary duplication of academic offerings.

521. STOVER, G. FRANKLIN. "Organization and Administration of Local Programs of Pre-induction Training," *Teachers College Record*, XLV (December, 1943), 194-204.
Notes the difficulties involved in adapting vocational programs to pre-induction re-

quirements and describes types of reorganized programs reported by twelve high schools in Pennsylvania.

YOUTH PROBLEM AND PROGRAM²

522. BENEWAY, JAMES. "New York State Young People Face Youth's Problems," *Adult Education Bulletin*, VIII (February, 1944), 67-69.
An account of the organization and the activities of the New York State Community Service Council, which is designed to stimulate youth to independent planning in relation to their own civic responsibilities.

523. THRASHER, FREDERIC M. "Helping Youth in Wartime," *Secondary Education*, XI (September-October, 1943), 11-12.
Calls attention to the responsibility of teachers and school administrators for assisting high-school students to maintain mental and moral balance amid the distractions of wartime conditions. Expresses the view that the schools should attempt especially to secure the more effective co-operation of community groups and agencies in meeting the problems of youth.

ADULT EDUCATION

524. ADLER, MORTIMER J. "What Every Schoolboy Doesn't Know," *Secondary Education*, XI (February-March, 1944), 14.
Explains that graduates of our schools are unaware of the deficiencies of their knowledge. Concludes that adult education is an important occupation for all mature persons.

525. BIELER, J. V. "Adult Education," *Sierra Educational News*, XL (March, 1944), 22-23.
A forceful statement of the need for judicious planning to preserve the useful features of wartime training programs as a

² See also Item 479 (Jager) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1944, number of the *School Review*.

means of achieving the readjustments which will be required in the process of demobilization.

526. "Community Programs of Adult Education," *Adult Education Bulletin*, VIII (February, 1944), 70-82.
Short reports on the adult-education program in six communities in widely distributed areas.

527. DEMING, ROBERT C. "Connecticut's Citizens' Councils," *Adult Education Journal*, III (April, 1944), 62.
A brief statement regarding lay councils sponsored by the Connecticut Council of Education and the Association of Boards of Education with the view of developing local leadership.

528. HAMLIN, H. M. "Adult Education," *Illinois Education*, XXXII (December, 1943), 103-4.
A general discussion of the growth of adult-education programs, emphasizing the advantages of providing for adult classes within the organization of the public schools and citing some examples of such programs in Illinois cities.

529. PUGH, WESLEY M. "One Third of Modesto's Adults Go to College," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (January, 1944), 197-99.
An interesting account of the effective adjustment of the program of the Modesto (California) Evening Junior College to the needs of the adult population of that city.

Educational Writings

*

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A STATE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE SURVEYS SECONDARY EDUCATION.—The growth of the secondary school in this country has been accompanied by constant discussion of the nature and the purposes of secondary education, by criticism, and by attempts to evaluate the product of the secondary school. In a democracy this is altogether fitting, for the continued development of our democratic way of life depends on the improvement of the educational program. Too frequently, however, the criticisms of commercial and other lay organizations have been based on personal opinion rather than on sound evidence concerning the secondary school and its product and have had as their objective the reduction of taxes. The report¹ of the Virginia State Chamber of Commerce on secondary education in Virginia is quite noteworthy, therefore, because it is based on a fact-finding study of the secondary schools and because it makes constructive recommendations for the improvement of secondary education in that state.

The reasons which prompted the study are stated as follows:

(1) The recognition that education affects the general welfare more intimately than any other state or local activity, and (2) the statistical evidence of the low rank of Virginia among the states in nearly all factors used as a measure of effort and achievement in education. It was definitely our feeling that improvement in education called

¹ *Opportunities for the Improvement of High School Education in Virginia*. Report of the Committee on Education of the Virginia State Chamber of Commerce with Foreword and Recommendations. Richmond 19, Virginia: Virginia State Chamber of Commerce, 1944. Pp. xiv+170. \$2.00 (paper), \$2.50 (cloth).

for better understanding and fuller co-operation on the part of business and professional people in the state [p. vi].

This constructive and statesman-like attitude toward education permeates the entire report.

Although not so elaborate as some state surveys which have been supported by governmental appropriations, this study does make a definite contribution to our knowledge of secondary education in one southern state and to a better understanding of some of the problems of education which are peculiar to the South. It also furnishes an outstanding illustration of the use of the objective method by a business organization for the study of educational problems which could well be emulated by other lay or commercial organizations desiring to investigate education.

The Committee on Education of the Virginia State Chamber of Commerce was responsible for the general direction of the study and for the preparation of the report. It was assisted by a Special Advisory Committee composed of prominent educators of the state. The active direction of the study was placed in the hands of Dr. Francis G. Lankford, Jr., of the Department of Education of the University of Virginia.

In the collection of the data, extensive use was made of school reports and other statistical information available in the State Department of Education, supplemented by theses and other research studies which were pertinent to various aspects of the investigation. The evaluation of the curriculum and of the product of the schools was attempted by a more intensive study of forty-three high

schools, 10 per cent of the total number, both colored and white, which were selected presumably to form a representative sample. Instruction was observed in these schools; standard tests were administered to the graduating Seniors; and data were collected concerning the success of the graduates who had entered both secondary and higher institutions for further learning. In addition, educators and employers responded to questionnaires concerning curriculum needs and the quality of the product of the schools. The data on which the report is based are presented in tabular form in the appendixes.

The report is divided into six chapters, each of which closes with somewhat detailed recommendations. These, in turn, are summarized and combined at the end of the report into ten quite specific recommendations for the improvement of secondary education in Virginia.

The opening chapter discusses the growth of secondary education in Virginia. Evidence is presented concerning the number, the size, and the types of schools, the trends in enrolment and attendance, and the relation of size of school to costs and curriculum offering. Chapter ii is concerned with the product of the school. The scores of the graduating Seniors of the forty-three selected schools are compared to national norms and to the norms for southern states, and data are presented concerning elimination and survival over a ten-year period. Summarizing statements are made concerning employers' reactions to the product of the school.

The plant, the equipment, and the instructional procedures observed in the representative schools form the subject of the third chapter. This chapter is the weakest in the report from the standpoint of data, for it tends to summarize the conclusions reached from the observations rather than to present the detailed facts. The fourth chapter deals with the preparation and the selection of students for college, studying in some detail the data concerning entrants from the forty-three selected schools. Special attention is

given to the relation between economic level of the home and college attendance.

Chapter v, one of the longest of the report, is devoted to terminal education in high school. It discusses in detail the need for vocational education; the courses taken and the occupations entered by the youth from the schools; and the trends in enrolment in day, evening, part-time, and extension classes in each vocational field. Much attention is given to the nature of the present offering in prevocational and vocational courses and to proposals for the expansion of the offering. The final chapter is given to a consideration of the staff of the schools, including the problems of education, experience, tenure and turnover, and salaries both of teachers and of administrators.

The recommendations made for the improvement of secondary education are evidence of the constructive and forward-looking nature of this report. Consolidation of small schools is proposed in order that better curriculum offerings may be made. Improvement of school plants and equipment is recommended. Higher standards for admission to professional schools, higher salaries and better salary scales for both teachers and principals, extension of employment to cover part or all of the normal vacation period, and additional compensation for lengthened tenure are all strongly urged. It is recommended that staffs be increased so that principals in all schools may be freed from teaching and may be charged with the responsibility for improving instruction. It is proposed that the compulsory attendance age be raised to sixteen, that part-time continuation education be compulsory for those leaving school, and that school boards be required to employ attendance officers. A long-range program for improving both general and vocational education is recommended, and the development of adequate guidance facilities in all schools is urged. Finally, state scholarships are proposed for able pupils financially unable to attend college.

One is impressed by the fact that the two

fundamental principles which underlie this report are the needs of the youth of Virginia and the desire to improve education to meet these needs. That the proposed changes will require greater expenditure is recognized, but the attitude of the Virginia State Chamber of Commerce is expressed in this way: "The question is not so much, 'Can we afford this additional expenditure?' as, 'Can we afford *not* to provide the better schooling we so urgently need?'" (Pp. viii-ix.)

This report is well worth reading by those interested in the use of facts as a basis for the improvement of education as well as by laymen who may wish to undertake a study of education.

CHARLES W. BOARDMAN

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THE EDUCATIONAL EFFECTS OF A "PROBLEM-AREA" COURSE IN SCIENCE.—There is a growing demand that the usual plan of organizing high-school courses about special subject fields and topics be abandoned as educationally ineffective. Instead, the critics would offer courses organized about a series of problems or areas "of more direct importance" to young people. A recent monograph¹ describes a course developed by a teacher who believes in the change to problem-area courses and reports the results of an attempt to evaluate the outcomes of the course.

The title of this book is misleading, since it indicates only one of the aspects of the course which is described. The opening chapter presents some of the criticisms of the traditional science courses in justification for the preparation of a different course. The experimental course was taught (apparently by the author) for three and one-half years in

¹ Warren Peter Everette, *Agricultural Science To Serve Youth: Outcomes of a Course in Experimental Science for Secondary-School Students*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 901. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. vi+80. \$1.85.

the new Susan Miller Dorsey Senior High School of Los Angeles.

Although the course [was] entitled "chemistry," information deemed essential for an adequate investigation of the problems undertaken [was] drawn from any field in the science curriculum [p. 5].

Social-science materials were utilized whenever these were required in the interpretation of a problem [p. 8].

The second chapter is mainly an account of the forty-week experimental course. The problem areas of the course and the time allotments were as follows: mineral resources, eight weeks; textiles, four weeks; cosmetics, four weeks; petroleum, three weeks; food, three weeks; Los Angeles water supply, three weeks; agriculture in southern California, six weeks; science problems involving mathematics, three weeks. Six weeks were allotted to orienting, organizing, and concluding the activities for the two semesters. Considerable emphasis was placed on individual semester problems. "One-fourth of all home-assignment time was allocated to study of [these] individual term problems" (p. 11). The procedure for each problem area is not clearly described, although more details are given in connection with the special study of the agriculture unit. Class work in that unit is described as consisting of experiments, demonstrations and displays, discussions, presentation of slides and motion pictures, and student reports. There were eight class assignments requiring outside preparation and the consultation of reference data. "No attempt was made to regiment class work by following a fixed content or time-allotment schedule" (p. 33). No tests or examinations are described, and the basis for assigning marks is not specified.

Chapter iii reports the first study of the changes produced in the students by the experimental course. This was a controlled-group study of grade-point averages to determine whether the course led to a general improvement in students' school work. Two

hundred and thirty pairs of students were matched with respect to intelligence quotients. One member of each pair was enrolled in the experimental course, and the other was enrolled in the regular chemistry course. Study of the data showed that there was "a significant improvement in high-school grade-point status of students during the year in which they enrolled in the experimental science course. Further significant grade-point improvement [was] shown in the year following enrolment in the experimental course by students who took science in their eleventh year" (pp. 20-21). The least significant improvement was shown by the most intelligent quarter of the students.

The main value of this section of the study lies in the choice of a basis for comparisons. Most studies of this sort have compared increases in knowledge brought about by different courses or different teaching techniques. In using general scholastic standing of students, the author has demonstrated one method by which we may begin to evaluate the general (and, we hope, more lasting) gains rather than the specific and temporary gains brought about by changes in courses. The gathering and the study of the data seem to have been adequately guarded against statistical errors and misinterpretations.

There is, however, a more fundamental criticism of the investigation. The emphases of the report lead one to feel that the advantages shown by the experimental course are certainly due to its problem-area organization. We must point out that the method of teaching was also, by implication, very different in the two courses. Furthermore, it is implied that the investigator taught the experimental classes himself while the regular course was taught by other teachers. These errors in setting up the experiment leave one free to hold the opinion that, if the same teacher had taught the traditional chemistry courses as enthusiastically as he taught the experimental course and by the methods he used in the experimental course,

he might have produced an equal improvement in the marks of the control group.

Chapters iv and v give details of the second part of the investigation. This was a study of the effects of the agriculture unit on student opinions in the 1942 classes. Considerable space is devoted to justifying the emphasis on agriculture and to describing the organization and the teaching of the unit. An "opinionnaire" of seventy questions was marked by ninety students both before and after the study of the agriculture unit. The questions of the opinionnaire were based largely on ideas about farm living conditions and labor problems during and after the war, the interdependence of rural and urban people, the effects of agricultural technology on society, and the role of the federal government in agriculture. These topics indicate the fact, which is clear from a study of the questions themselves, that the opinionnaire deals with social problems rather than with natural science. Although any gathering of honest and thoughtful citizens would carry on a long and lively debate as to which was the correct answer to many of the opinionnaire questions, the investigator scored the students' responses as correct or incorrect according to the following criterion:

The answer, in each case, [was] judged appropriate in terms of ideas and objectives implicit or explicit in materials published by government agencies which share in national agricultural planning, . . . or by authors in the field. . . . In cases of disagreement between authorities, the viewpoint of the United States Department of Agriculture was accepted [pp. 37-38].

The ninety students who studied the agriculture unit are said to have—

1. Revise[d] preconceived opinions, . . . and these revisions tend[ed] to agree with tenets underlying large-scale planned agricultural production.

2. Claim[ed] to be willing to accept responsibilities as active members of society and to cooperate with other citizens and technologists to further large-scale planned agricultural production [p. 72].

Those students who agreed most closely with the investigator's answers to the opinionnaire also agreed most closely in term problem reports (correlation +0.87), used the most class-assignment references (correlation +0.85), and used the largest number of different types of class-assignment references (correlation +0.82).

The report shows that the agricultural section of the experimental course led students to study issues involving the effects of science on society and to modify their opinions on these issues. The author of the monograph insists that marked educational improvement would follow the relaxation of traditional college-entrance requirements and the organization of all courses in terms of major problem areas. He speaks repeatedly of "a science curriculum," but yielding to his philosophy would leave no science curriculum. The kinds of courses he advocates would be no more natural science than social science, language arts, or mathematics if these other fields have as much to contribute to the understanding of the problems about which the courses would be organized.

Although this publication will be criticized by proponents of our present natural-science courses and by opponents of a planned national economy, it presents a challenge to conservative educators to show that their work is producing the best possible results in terms of student growth. It should be mentioned that the monograph is difficult to read and to analyze because the exposition is not always sequential and explicit.

JOHN C. MAYFIELD

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A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT.—During the past decade a number of studies have been published dealing with various aspects of growth and development from longitudinal data. Another contribution¹ to the accumulating

¹ Elizabeth Ebert and Katherine Simmons, *The Brush Foundation Study of Child Growth and*

literature on child development has been made from an analysis of the wealth of materials compiled by the Brush Foundation. This monograph, the first in a series, deals with psychometric data for Cleveland children collected over a period of eleven years. The subjects used in the study were homogeneous, above average in economic and educational status, and of North European stock. The sample was selected in two respects: (1) "physical and mental normality" and (2) "voluntary participation." Tests were made at three-month intervals during the first year, at six-month intervals for the next four years, and yearly thereafter. The present report, however, is concerned only with the results compiled for children from two to fifteen years of age, inclusive.

The monograph is divided into five sections. The first two sections deal at length with "Intelligence Test Constancy" and "The Performance Tests." "The Prediction of Scholastic Achievement by Earlier Psychometric Tests," "Sibling Resemblance," and "Summary of Minnesota Mechanical Abilities and Porteus Maze Test Data" are treated briefly in the last three sections. The Appendix, in reality, constitutes a sixth section devoted to "The Kent-Shakow Industrial Form Board Series."

The authors explain fully the limitations of their data, including changes in methods, changes in sampling, changes in tests, and a combination of cross-sectional and longitudinal data. The facts have been presented with accuracy and in detail. The caution exercised, however, in interpreting data gives the impression of overcautiousness in generalizing and highlighting the implications of the results. It is difficult for the reader to maintain sufficient interest to follow the de-

Development: I. Psychometric Tests. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. VIII, No. 2 (Serial No. 35). Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1943. Pp. xiv+114.
\$1.50.

tailed statistics and, in some instances, the repetitious presentation.

The difficulties encountered in integrating the work of separate aspects of a research program are evident in this monograph. A more thoroughly integrated and cohesive style would have made the study more readable. There is a lack of consistency in presenting tables and figures. The tabular data are not always clear to the reader without close comparison of text and table. The text is well supported by tabular and graphical evidence, there being a total of 70 tables and 19 figures in 113 pages.

The salient findings in each section are not readily accessible, since there are inconsistencies in the methods of summarizing the results. No attempt has been made to bring together the over-all conclusions from the psychometric data assembled by the Brush Foundation.

The results reported in this study will be of value to the research worker interested in psychometric measurement. The findings are, in most instances, consistent with the general trends in the published studies of the past decade that have been made from similar data. The authors have made a few direct comparisons with other studies but have not attempted to compare their findings with research trends in the literature. They have stated that their objective is to present facts from the Brush data without generalization, and they have stayed by this purpose.

This monograph should be of special interest to the research workers who have had some contact with the work of the Brush Foundation and of general interest to all students of child development. This initial report based on Cleveland children has made a commendable start in disseminating facts for general use.

CHARLES D. FLORY

New York City

MAKING AMERICAN HISTORY VIVID.—Scarcely anyone denies that courses in history should effect a satisfactory balance be-

tween political, military, international, social, and economic factors. Yet in many high schools today too little provision is made for the kind of instruction which helps students acquire a better understanding of the social and economic aspects of American life. Gradually, however, a few chapters describing such conditions in various periods have crept into the textbooks. The material is difficult to condense into the space allotted, and the results are usually quite inadequate. The broad generalizations go far beyond the experience of the young people for whom they are intended and hence have little meaning for them.

The writer of a recent book² has attempted to supply a multitude of details out of which the fabric of American life at selected periods can be woven. A teacher who reads this volume cannot help being impressed with the richness of its resources for reconstructing the social and economic scenes in American history.

For the pre-Revolutionary days there are five chapters. Two describe New England town life in the seventeenth century, while the other three deal with eighteenth-century ways of living on a Virginia plantation, living in New York, and living in Philadelphia. The first half of the nineteenth century is represented by chapters carrying the headings "A Georgia Town in 1807," "Susan Pettigrew Makes a Journey," and "Four Young Men in the Gold Rush." The more recent periods are described in chapters dealing with Chicago in the 1870's, a southern mill-town in the 1880's, and New York in 1908.

In each chapter the author contrives to involve a few central characters, almost all fictional, in discussions of matters which he deems important. Through these conversations we learn of topics such as the Puritan laws regulating personal conduct, the theater in early New York, ghosts in Augusta, rais-

² W. E. Woodward, *The Way Our People Lived: An Intimate American History*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1944. Pp. 402 with a supplement of illustrations. \$3.95.

ing children on "pot liquor," the *New York Herald's* treatment of the Jewett murder case, McGuffey's readers, nineteenth-century inventions, and a host of others. Extended quotations from the letters and diaries of the characters supply further interesting details. The author is at his best and writes most convincingly when he does his own describing. Here he displays a talent which clearly does not need to rely on artificial devices to convey ideas.

Some chapters are outstanding, both for the way in which the material is presented and for the richness of detail. Notable among these is that describing a journey from New York to Cincinnati in the 1830's. The occasion provides an excellent opportunity to give the reader an understanding of the travel facilities of the period. The experiences of four young men who take the overland route to California during the gold rush are told in a fascinating way. The author's reminiscences of his boyhood in Graniteville, South Carolina, make delightful reading.

It is difficult to see how the many problems inherent in writing a book of this kind could be completely overcome. Who shall represent our people? What periods should receive the greatest emphasis? What aspects of living shall be described and at the expense of what others? The solutions of problems of this kind inevitably depend on the

author's conception of what is important. Mr. Woodward has, on the whole, confined his attention to urban patterns of living. He gives in some chapters a reasonably good cross-section of American society, while in others, notably that on New York in 1908, his characters are typical of only a small segment of the population. Nearly half the pages are devoted to Colonial life, while only three chapters deal with the period since 1860. Except for a brief reference to Cincinnati in chapter vii, the chapter on Chicago, and the account of the gold-seekers, nothing is said about the ways of living west of the Appalachians.

The book has no index. Its bibliography omits many items noted in the text or cited in the footnotes, and little help is given either in the bibliography or in the footnotes to those who would pursue a given topic further. The supplement of illustrations is excellent.

While *The Way Our People Lived* has many shortcomings from the point of view of historical scholarship, it will provide an informative and enjoyable experience for those who want to get a picture of some phases of American life in the past.

KENNETH J. REHAGE

University of Chicago



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